

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 25, 1904.

The Week.

The new electoral apportionment which makes a Democratic victory impossible without some Western votes, gives national interest to every new development in Wisconsin. The same point has now been raised regarding the eligibility of three Republican nominees for Presidential electors which was raised in New York earlier in the year respecting certain electors on the Democratic ticket. They are held to be ineligible under the Constitution because they are national-bank directors. As it happens, these three are among the eleven electors who chose to have their names in the La Follette column of the ballot. If they withdraw, several possibilities present themselves. The Stalwarts, who have now on their ticket only two of the electoral candidates, may take the opportunity at once of filling the places of the ineligible. La Follette's faction, under the law, would then have the choice of leaving these three places vacant, or naming three new men, or taking chances with the men objected to. If they chose either of the last two courses, it would give the Democrats at least as good a chance of three electoral votes as they have now of electing their gubernatorial ticket.

The campaign which opened on Friday in Wisconsin is likely to prove one of the hottest the country over. Certainly Gov. La Follette's opening speech, charging wholesale bribery of his delegates in the State Convention of 1896, is not calculated to narrow the breach between the two factions or make easier the task of those national leaders who would like to patch up a compromise. He also made it perfectly clear that even if the Supreme Court decides he is irregular, he will remain a candidate. His "Stalwart" opponent is expected to withdraw if the decision is against him; but as most of the bitter anti-La Follette men will vote the Democratic State ticket, this may really be of secondary importance in determining the result. In a long continued fight like this, where the arguments and the issues are familiar to every voter, party regularity is not so much coveted as usual for its own sake.

Good Republicans must regard with mixed feelings the accessions of old-time Populists to their ticket. It is not easy to reconcile the conception of a Democracy still immersed in Bryanism and a Republican party standing for all that

is conservative and solid, with the fact that some leading radicals seem to find Mr. Roosevelt nearer to their ideal than Judge Parker. Here is ex-Senator Pettigrew sitting on the fence, and ex-Senator Butler of North Carolina an outspoken Roosevelt partisan, while the Populist national committeeman from Texas declares that from his party's point of view the Republican ticket is the lesser evil. Votes are votes wherever they come from, and it does not always follow that because one politician of prominence takes a new position, all his former followers will do the same. Still, the flocking of birds of this particular feather would have been deemed by the Republicans an impressive augury had it only been in the other direction. The support of Pettigrew and Butler would have been taken as proof positive that the Democracy had not yet attained safety and sanity. What does their attitude mean now?

Both Republicans and Democrats were willing enough to put off the Smoot investigation until after election. Meanwhile, the situation in the States where the Mormon vote is heavy has become complicated. Senator Smoot is warned that if he persists in active participation in State politics to the point of dictating nominations and electing his candidates, it will certainly be taken as proof of Mormon domination in politics, and he himself, on probation in the Senate, will suffer the consequences. In other words, if Mormon interference is seen too clearly in a Republican victory in Utah and the neighboring States, the sentiment of the rest of the country, which has been in abeyance since the sensational disclosures of last winter, may demand the unseating of the Mormon Senator. The Utah Democrats have entertained the hope of persuading the Church, for once, to take no part in an election and let the individual members vote as they choose. As to the two parties, it is six of one and half a dozen of the other, but there are contingencies in which the votes of a few Rocky Mountain States might hold the balance in electing the next President.

Few Republicans are likely to be deceived by Governor-Chairman Odell's little joke about an "open convention in which the delegates will select the candidate for Governor." Were he speaking seriously, he would express his conviction that free conventions are the ruin of our present party system, and consequently of our Government. For example, what would have happened to the party of moral ideals in New York had not that eminent moralist, Thomas Collier

Platt, assisted by such minor prophets as John Raines and Louis F. Payn, done his best to keep the conventions tight shut? What were the Sunday schools at the Fifth Avenue Hotel for except to prevent such a dire catastrophe as a free scramble for places? Mr. Odell himself is reported to hold strict views as to the necessity of "discipline" within the party, of leaving the settlement of vexed questions to "wiser heads." The foolish privates in the ranks at least know enough not to intrude upon their superiors their crude and undigested opinions as to the availability of Nevada N. Stranahan, Francis Wayland Higgins, and Timothy L. Woodruff—that is, all the privates except the Woodruff shouters, who have always been conspicuous for not knowing anything whatever. Mr. Odell's near and dear friend, the *Newburgh News*, Court Jester for the last four years, loudly declares that there is a strong popular demand for a third term of B. B. Odell, jr. If Mr. Odell listens to this flattering voice—as every Democrat is earnestly praying he may—he can be trusted to close the convention with a snap.

"I should be ashamed to mention McCarren's name in decent society," said Charles F. Murphy on Thursday. Without pretending to Mr. Murphy's intimate knowledge of the usages of decent society, we may safely assert that his judgment of Senator McCarren is correct; and, what is more, Senator McCarren would be justified in using the same words of Murphy. Neither is fit for decent political society. The fact that both are nominally Democrats and presumably supporters of Judge Parker does not alter either their characters or ideals, and does not lessen the necessity of describing them as they are. The chief of a faction of the Brooklyn Democrats and the Tammany boss are wholly destitute of real political principles; they are machine organizers pure and simple; and they are at present engaged in a particularly petty and disgusting brawl over patronage. Their loud wrangling attracts the attention of the country at large, just as a dog-fight draws a crowd on the street. Many people, both within and without New York State, labor under the delusion that because these two quarrelsome politicians are making such a hubbub they are the actual leaders of Democratic opinion, the champions upon whose efforts the success of the ticket in this State depends. Nothing is farther from the truth. They have no opinions except as to spoils; they never have rallied and never can rally a following among men who think; and the success or failure of Judge Parker will rest

upon causes that lie far deeper than the surface squabbles of ward politicians.

The political situation in Massachusetts has seldom been more interesting than at present. The State is in revolt against Lodge, and at the same time is facing the possibility of filling out Senator Hoar's unexpired term (1904-1907). In the event of his death, his successor will be elected on the same day that the Legislature ballots on Lodge's return to the Senate. Never before has a Senatorial election been held under such conditions in Massachusetts. For the moment the question of filling Senator Hoar's place has diverted attention somewhat from the disciplining of Lodge. Will a man of the Lodge type be selected? The junior Senator is admittedly the most adroit character that has figured in Massachusetts politics for many a year; though not a boss in name, he has long had the reputation of "carrying the State in his vest pocket." The question now is, Will his influence predominate in the choice of Senator Hoar's successor; and if so, will it be exerted for good? Time alone will answer, but there is ground for hope. If Senator Hoar passes away immediately, Gov. Bates will appoint a successor, who will hold over until the meeting of the Legislature. That he will choose a man of high standing is taken for granted; the names most frequently mentioned being those of ex-Gov. Crane, ex-Secretaries Long and Moody, and Gen. William F. Draper, ex-Ambassador to Italy. The belief is that ex-Gov. Crane can have the Senatorship if he desires, and the chances are more than even that the Legislature would ratify the Governor's action.

The arrival at this port of the 33,000-ton steamship *Minnesota* emphasizes the fact that there is nothing this country cannot do—if it is prepared to pay the price. The price in this case has been pretty heavy. The boat was built at New London, and cost 28 to 30 per cent. more than if she had been bought abroad. She is a fine product of a protective tariff, but was obviously not constructed to make money. Her mission is to ply the Pacific in connection with the Great Northern Railway. She will come into competition with foreign boats of vastly less cost, and if she should charge the rates necessary for a fair return on the investment she would unquestionably go whistling for cargoes. It is hoped that, as a feeder to the railroad, there may be an indirect profit in her; but even this is doubtful, for President James J. Hill of the Great Northern road told the Merchant Marine Commission in May that the *Minnesota* and her sister ship, the *Manchuria*, were an "experiment." Anybody, he said, who would agree to run

them for a certain period could have them "on very liberal terms." A merchant marine of this character will certainly never bring this country the \$450,000,000 a year which Great Britain derives from doing the carrying trade of the outside world.

Now that the billet pool has collapsed and wire products have been reduced, it seems only a question of time before other prices in the steel industry will be declared open and rate agreements of all sorts ignored. All this has come about through the cut announced by an independent producer and through the retaliatory measures adopted by the Trust to "protect its business." Everything now depends on the permanence of the rail pool and the ability of the mills to continue the \$28-a-ton schedule, which the railroads declare to be excessive. While concessions in this branch have been hinted at, the compact has survived much opposition, and, since it affects the most important branch of the industry, every effort will be put forth to maintain it. The trade knows too well that pool prices in many instances were ridiculously high. While the interests precipitating the struggle are said to have been actuated by ulterior motives and a desire to unload one or two unprofitable plants on the Trust at fabulous figures, the situation was coming to a point where a break would have been inevitable and prices must have been adjusted to a greatly restricted demand.

How completely the old conditions have returned in the Building Trades is shown by the arrest of Philip Weinseimer on the charge of extortion. One would hardly suppose, from this, that the whole industry was purified less than a year ago. The arbitration agreement was directed chiefly against the walking delegate. Unions were liberally recognized, were given access at any time to employers; but it was solemnly stipulated that their representatives should not be business agents. This, of course, implied the obligation of employers to cease paying blackmail. Yet one sub-contractor, according to his own story, has been buying favors since December last. It is true that Essig, the offending plumber, is not directly a member of the Employers' Association, which to that extent escapes responsibility for his acts. But the incident is only another sign that the blame for the present demoralization in the building trades is divided equally between masters and men. As long as there are dishonest employers ready to pay blackmail, there will be walking delegates ready to take it. Evidently the one way to mend matters is to establish the open shop.

The citizens of Bridgeport are getting a taste of ward politics as applied to

library administration, and wry faces are plentiful in the city. Dennis Mulvihill, the "stoker mayor," has been looking about to find out how to strengthen his organization. He saw that the superintendent of the public library and the librarian, Mr. and Mrs. Hills, who had been in the library service, one since 1891 and the other since 1879, two years before it became a city institution, did not control a ward or even a block of voters. The death of four members of the board of control and the expiration of the terms of two others gave the "stoker mayor" his opportunity to appoint a majority of the trustees. Among these he included, according to the *Bridgeport Standard*, an undertaker who had once been in the saloon business, a journeyman plumber, a real-estate and insurance agent, and a factory contractor. This majority of choice spirits in the new board, after refusing to reappoint Mr. and Mrs. Hills, elected as superintendent "a man of little education," as the *Library Journal* describes him, "best known to the Bridgeport public as the former manager of a place of amusement popularly known as 'Chippy Island.'" The mayor has explained the appointment in this way: "He [the new superintendent] has had hard luck and needs the salary for a while." Because of the appointment, one bequest of \$125,000, which had been promised for the establishment of a branch library, has been lost. As the *Library Journal* observes, the facts point the moral.

Until the British note on recent seizures by Russia, declaring that food in transit in neutral ships is not contraband of war, is published, it would be premature to discuss the merits of the view. No high tribunal has, we believe, taken so advanced a view as that. Generally the English and American courts have held that provisions are contraband when a strong presumption of their military destination can be established. All decisions have discouraged the attempt to trace cargoes of this character beyond the port for which their invoices read. However, it may be said that any regulation which limits interference with neutral vessels on the high seas, and which devolves the duty of intercepting contraband traffic exclusively upon blockading squadrons, is in the direction of civilization. For this reason we are not sorry to see Mr. Hay making similar representations concerning contraband to St. Petersburg. Yet it should be remarked that if the right of search on the high seas is to be so strictly limited as the British note suggests, there must be a corresponding increase in the conception of territorial waters. The obsolete three-mile limit should be extended to a distance covering all reasonable operations of coast defence or blockade under modern conditions. Until the term high sea has been redefined, na-

tions which, like Russia, assert a sweeping right of search and confiscation, will have much on their side of the question. So the British note, representing probably a view of contraband desirable yet more liberal than the Continental Powers can afford to entertain, is one more argument for an international congress to deal authoritatively with the whole matter of neutrality at sea.

The Japanese Foreign Office, defending the capture at Chefoo, asserts the interesting principle that Chinese neutrality is "imperfect"—in other words, fictitious—since China has no means of living up to her duties as a neutral. This is frank, at least, and it corresponds very closely to the facts of the case, but it is dangerous doctrine, because, first, it assumes that neither Japan nor Russia need respect the neutrality of China, and, next, because the United States, with the European Powers, having declared that Chinese neutrality is perfect, must maintain the doctrine or stand discredited. We have, then, the following rather uneasy situation with respect to Chinese neutrality—Russia abusing it covertly; Japan disregarding it openly; the civilized Powers bound to maintain it. If the various assertions of Chinese integrity, inviolability, and responsibility are pure fictions, they are fictions of a useful and even necessary sort. The doctrine most persistently laid down by Mr. Hay is an ideal to which civilization hopes Chinese facts will gradually approximate. And here comes Japan, rudely dealing with Chinese facts as they are, and bowling over humane theories set up at considerable pains. Nobody could blame Japan if her stake in the matter were vital; as a matter of fact, Japan could well have afforded to settle by usual diplomatic methods the cases of Russian vessels now in Chinese ports. All her acts and representations bear the look, not of wise statesmanship, but of impatience, and are calculated to alienate the sympathy of the Occidental nations. The practical question, of course, is, What are the guarantors of international neutrality going to do if Japan proceeds to act upon her theory of the "imperfect neutrality" of China? The absurd rumor that an American vessel had already intervened shows at least that the fabricators at Shanghai have grasped the seriousness of the situation and one of its unpleasant possibilities.

The conference of consuls at Shanghai arrived at no decision on the *Askold* case, but should have convinced both Russia and China that the affair is of international importance. Sharp warning is served on Japan that a repetition of the exploit at Chefoo would be perilous, and upon Russia that she must not again abuse Chinese hospitality so long as she did in the case of the gun-

boat *Mandjur*. Of course great pressure is being brought to bear upon both China and Russia to disarm the *Askold*. Any other solution, in fact, would be fraught with embarrassments. For England or the United States to undertake the proper duty of China and escort the Russian vessels to the high seas would be to admit inopportunistically the impotence of China and to give a false impression of concern for Russia. In the face of the activity of the Powers at Shanghai, Japan is very unlikely to do anything rash. If, however, the official views of Japan on Chinese neutrality correspond with her statements to the press, it is time for Mr. Hay to circulate another note defending not merely the "administrative entity" of China, but also her effective neutrality in the present war.

At last the Germans are able to report the substantial victory in their Southwest African colony for which Emperor and people have so long been eagerly waiting. Just when the best-informed German press had come to the conclusion that Gen. von Trotha's plan of campaign had failed in every particular, he is able to confute his critics by penetrating the mountain fastnesses of the Waterberg and inflicting a severe defeat upon the Hereros with the loss of only ninety-one officers and men. Apparently the backbone of the uprising is now broken. Even if some of Chief Samuel's tribesmen have escaped, they can be hunted down at leisure. Without their stock and without leaders in whom they can trust, their fate can be readily foretold. That it will take some time—perhaps a year—to stamp out the smouldering embers of the insurrection is quite likely. A much longer period will be required to restore the colony to the conditions existing before the break with the natives. Nevertheless the German Colonial Office must be in a happy mood for the first time in many months. Not only has it had nothing but bad news from Southwest Africa for half a year, but its officials in Samoa, New Guinea, and Cameroons have all been bitterly attacked, and, it would seem, with reason.

A member of the Bavarian Chamber of Representatives, one Dr. Heim, has made himself particularly disliked of late not only because of his manners and methods on the floor, but also because of an ability to make trouble for the Government. He recently rose in his seat to ask the Minister of War if he knew anything of a secret order favoring duelling, issued several years ago to the army, which was directly contrary to the anti-duelling decree of the Prince Regent. General von Asch at once rose to his feet, and, without moving an eyelid, announced that there never had been any such secret order. Thereupon Dr. Heim drew out of his pocket a copy of it,

bearing General von Asch's own signature. Naturally, the sensation created was so great as to cause the War Minister to resign, but the Prince Regent declined to accept the resignation, in language which can be construed only as a deliberate attack upon the clever Dr. Heim. Of course, the Anti-Clericals and Liberals are up in arms over the retention, but to no purpose. The Prince Regent's slight popularity is not increased by this act, or by the double-faced position in which the Government now finds itself with reference to duelling.

When she loses the Christian protectorate in the East, France will break the last official tie with her mediæval glories. Traditionalists will find some consolation in the fact that no successor is likely to carry on the works of her Catholic monarchs. Austria, it is reported, has declined to accept this distinction at the hands of Pius X.; very sensibly, for she has no fleet or military establishment in Pagan lands to make the protectorate effective. Spain, for the same reason, could not undertake this traditional duty. In passing, it should be said that the proffer of the Eastern protectorate to Austria was a notable movement of conciliation on the part of the Papacy. It will readily be understood that the widening breach with France makes the Pope most solicitous to secure the friendship of the only great Power still enrolled among the faithful. The Christian protectorate itself had become rather a hollow form. Nominally, French consuls stood ready to protect Christians of whatever denomination in Pagan lands. Practically, France long ago lost her predominant position in the Levant, and Germany, disregarding the obsolescent protectorate, avenged the murder of her own missionaries in Shantung. It is a matter of congratulation that, persistent rumors to the contrary, there never has been any chance that the Protestant Kaiser would be made protector of all Roman Catholics *in partibus*. To have given this honorary position to a Lutheran potentate would have been a shade more illogical than to continue it in the hands of a Voltairean Premier of France. Finally, the readiness with which Pius X. has struck at the dearest bond between France and the Church shows clearly that he has not blundered into this quarrel, but has provoked it, and deliberately accepts the consequences. If the Church suffers beyond all expectation from dominant anti-clericalism, the responsibility will lie rather with the head of the Church than with its open enemies in the Palais Bourbon. Christians in the Orient will hardly know that a change has occurred. For a long time they have looked to their home governments for protection, and not to the Vatican or to the French protectorate.

ARE THERE REAL ISSUES?

"The practically assured stability of our colonial and of our tariff policy during the next term, no matter which man may be chosen, of itself creates a cause for the Judge's election. It justifies 'Imperialists' and Protectionists in voting for him. They can do so with a full sense of the safety of their favorite ideas. Those ideas will be safe beyond even the Judge's power to jar them. They can vote for him, and with a full sense, also, of the desirable results to be expected from a division of the Government between the two parties in a way to make neither predominant and both extra-careful or cautious."

We reprint at length these well-meaning words of the Brooklyn *Eagle* of August 15, because they represent a view which Republican advocates are industriously seeking to inculcate and certain worthy persons actually appear to believe. Whenever a prominent Independent or Democrat declares he will vote for Roosevelt, he usually explains his decision by premising that there are no principles at stake in this campaign, and that his choice is a purely personal one. Now if this were actually the case, if there were no better reason for supporting Judge Parker than that it is tiresome to play either red or black all the time, if Democrats had no better rallying cry than "Vote for Parker and general inaction," why, in simple honesty, we should be constrained to admit that his nomination was superfluous and his candidacy an impertinence.

But this is by no means the case; there are major issues in tariff taxation and in the attitude of the two candidates towards law; minor issues in Imperialism and in the Trusts. The attempt to show that the two parties stand on timid common ground as regards the tariff is based on mere juggling with the phrases of the platforms and of the candidates. Now a man is judged less by his professions than by the friends he attracts and the foes he repels; and parties are known less by their official utterances than by the voters they win over. The proof that the Democratic party means honestly by its tariff promises is that protectionists are moving heaven and earth to discredit Judge Parker. Where do we hear of chapters, or single individuals, of the Home Market Club accepting the *Eagle's* assurances that protectionists may be Democrats this year with perfect impunity? Or, contrariwise, where do you hear of a tariff-for-revenue man who on this ground feels that he may safely vote with the Republicans? Even the journals which in one column inform their readers that Judge Parker is a pitiful *fainéant* on all issues, in the next column warn the business world against the impending horrors of tariff-tinkering.

Furthermore, those who insist that Judge Parker's plea for Constitutionalism is precisely what Mr. Roosevelt would cheerfully accept as his official rule of conduct, must account, first, for the frank preference of the socialistical-

ly inclined for Mr. Roosevelt, and next for the pronounced dread of him among the believers in law, as well as for their enthusiastic reception of Judge Parker's appeal for a government of law. In other words, a salient personality like Mr. Roosevelt's proves a honey-pot for the entire reckless swarm; while, on the other hand, lawyers unite to support a conservative Democrat on that issue of respect for law which they are most competent to weigh. No army of cart-tail orators or legion of sophistical journalists can persuade the plain people that the ignorant enthusiasm of the Populists and the trained intelligence of the legists have both mistaken their man.

Pursuing this process beyond the clear-cut issues of the tariff and the candidates, one finds the same principles obtain as to the other points of party cleavage. It is not the Anti-Imperialists who are making a to-do about Mr. Parker's statements on the Philippines; it is the Imperialists who taunt him with accepting their own doctrines, and make a crime in him what they would have accounted a virtue in themselves. We shall believe those who say that Mr. Parker would attenuate the promise of "independence" unqualifiedly made in the Democratic platform when we see those who through good and ill-repute have fought for that promise accuse him of cowardice.

The Trusts, except for avowed Socialists, are hardly an issue this year. The problem is too complex and wants much time and investigation. President Roosevelt's sporadic activities have bewildered the popular mind; natural causes have considerably reduced the admitted evils of industrial consolidations. And yet it should be said here also that the Democratic platform has made the only practical suggestion for relief—increase of the powers of the Interstate Commerce Commission—and that Judge Parker has given a most useful reminder that an abused community has not begun to exhaust the remedial resources of the common law.

Finally, then, a protectionist may vote for Judge Parker only if he is honestly persuaded that the issue of Constitutionalism transcends that of protection; and an Imperialist may rightly support Judge Parker only if he believes the issue yields in urgency and importance to that of tariff reduction and of Constitutionalism. Those who invite either class to vote wholesale for the Democratic candidate offer the people a false pretence, and do Mr. Parker the discourtesy and the damage of presuming that his chief stronghold is his innocuousness. Those who deny that there are real differences between the parties simply forget the elementary principle of human intercourse, that men and institutions are best known by the friendships they attract and the enemies they arouse.

THE REPUBLICAN BIBLE.

The patriarch Job would never have uttered the cry, "Oh, that mine adversary had written a book," if he had ever anticipated being confronted with such a volume as the Republican Campaign Text-Book of this year. One could hardly expect that a *vade-mecum* of this character should prove a permanent addition to our polite literature; and this rakish-looking treatise, shaped—*absit omen!*—like a pocket-book, fathered only by the Republican Campaign Committee as a body, and carefully displaying the union label of the Job Trust on its title-page, might be safely thrown at once into the rubbish barrel if it were not that it is the officially authenticated spellbinder's guide, and reveals the Republican plan of campaign. It is safe to say that no other 550 consecutive pages have ever raised a more continuous paean of praise to the Republican party.

The relative importance of the respective campaign questions may be judged from the order in which they are treated, and from the space devoted to them respectively. Practically all of the first ninety pages is given to the tariff. That is always the favorite battleground with the Republicans. The next fifty pages sing the praises of Prosperity, and are intended to reconcile the wage-earners to the régime of tariff monopoly. The teeming sea, and the fruitful field, the riches of the mine and the intelligence of the worker, are all ascribed to the Dingley abomination. Then follows a sequel of thirty pages devoted to the Trusts. Here the Republican spellbinder is warned to be on his guard. On pages 15 and 118 there are demonstrations that the Trusts are "utterly unable to control the markets," and in another place (p. 120) it is proved that whereas the competitive products of agriculture have constantly risen in price, the Trust products have continuously fallen; also, that the wages of Trust employees (p. 229) have generally risen. Forty more pages are devoted to material on wages and prices, Commissioner Wright's recent statistics being wrested from their true meaning, and made to keep step with the Prosperity bandwagon. There are frequent lapses in all this rhodomontade which will make the judicious smile. Thus Sir Arthur Balfour (p. 94) is dragged at the wheels of the protective chariot; and on page 45 "the Democratic plan" of Canadian reciprocity is described in tones of abhorrence as referring to "articles of common production in the two countries," whereas the genial Lodge has just been compelled to declare that he would not limit reciprocity with Canada to non-competitive products. We commend page 45 to Mr. Lodge for perusal.

At page 248 the record, or, to be more accurate, the records, of Theodore Roosevelt begin. We speak advisedly when we

use the plural, for the Outline of the Contents gives pages 241-248 to "the record of Theodore Roosevelt," and pages 248-258 to the "labor record of Theodore Roosevelt." Over these two biographical sketches it is clear that both Mr. Riis and some saner historian have jointly labored, and the effect is bizarre to an astonishing degree. Mr. Roosevelt is described in the beginning with a gorgeousness of rhetoric that leaves nothing to be desired. Besides exhibiting (p. 248) the "bolder constituents of manhood that one finds in the best of Plutarch's men and in the approved figures of all historic periods, . . . he has remained constant and true in the possession and exercise of an added set of virtues, etc., etc." He is (p. 249) "without question the highest authority in this country to-day upon the application of our laws and our system of government to the varied tasks of the chief executive." Alas, poor Cleveland! But the frost begins on page 251. Roosevelt's career as Assistant Secretary of the Navy is given in sixteen lines, with no mention of his proposal to Secretary Long to attack and sink the Spanish ships *en route* for Cuba before war had been declared. "His Service in the War with Spain" occupies exactly eight lines!

"Picture it, think of it,
Dissolute man!"

—eight lines for freeing Cuba! By page 252 we seem to be reading of Dr. Jekyll instead of Mr. Hyde, for, 'in place of his expected second term in the intense activities of the governorship of New York, he reconciled himself to the prospect of four years of quiet, self-repressed [*sic*], observant, and studious life in the dignified office of Vice-President." *Sic transit gloria mundi.*

Had the Campaign Text-Book ended here with the various speeches of Mr. Hay, Mr. Root, and others as appendixes, there would be little to which exception might seriously be taken. But, unfortunately as we think, a mean-spirited attack of a personal nature is made upon Judge Parker, beginning with page 493 and running to page 508. One must allow for a rough-and-tumble turmoil in an exciting campaign, and a face blow now and then with a lot of stuffed statistical clubs is to be expected, but the malignant attempt made in this last section to sneak behind an opponent and discharge a vitriol squirt-gun in his ear is despicable beyond description. What is termed the "St. Louis Esopus Episode" is recited in the same fashion as attempted by some of the baser partisan sheets a fortnight ago, with insinuation that the gold telegram was purposely delayed after a full realization of the absence of a gold plank in the platform, and until the nomination had been safely landed beyond all peradventure of recall. If this were the sole issue, the Democracy could go in triumph to the polls tomorrow.

To this decayed slander is added another—that Judge Parker himself, by personally assenting to the Trust plank in the Democratic platform of this State, bound himself to certain Trust magnates that they should not be disturbed in their position. It is alleged that the bargain thus consummated was represented by the declaration that "Corporations thus chartered by the State must be subject to just regulation by the State in the interest of the people." This is distorted to mean the abolishing of "national control of Trusts and all similar combinations." It means, of course, nothing of the kind. As well say that the injunction, "Children, obey your parents," implies that the children are to defy their schoolmaster and to shoot the policeman. If this attempt at character assassination does not provoke retaliation, we are no prophet. It is well to remember where the responsibility for the first blow rests.

THE VOTE OF THE PACIFIC COAST.

The formation of the Constitutional Club is likely to have a serious effect upon the Presidential vote, not only in New York, but throughout the East. President Roosevelt's evident determination to carry out personal policies, regardless of law or precedent, has been profoundly disquieting to men of conservative temper. They have seen in his course the substitution of the will of an individual for the law of the land. But the Democratic managers doubtless realize that, in less conservative regions, the arguments which turn members of the Constitutional Club against Mr. Roosevelt may actually win him supporters. In the newer communities people are often attracted by the plea that President Roosevelt "has not fussed about the letter of the law, but has gone ahead and done things."

This mental attitude is, of course, due to training and environment. In the more recently settled parts of the country adequate laws and machinery for enforcement have frequently been lacking. For want of an efficient police force, for want of exact statutes and courts to construe them, energetic men have often made their law off-hand and have acted as sheriff, judge, and jury. They have organized posses and have run undesirable characters out of town; they have quieted land titles or levied municipal assessments by rough and ready shortcuts. The end has seemed to justify the means. Pioneers not only have felt entire satisfaction over their own readiness in emergencies, but have admired similar dash and vigor in others. They have forgotten that the methods of the ranch, the mining-camp, and the newly laid-out town are not needed in the Presidential office; and thus it happens that when the talk is of President Roosevelt's disregard of law, some of them listen with

amazement and mystification. They have thrown down the barrier of the law a dozen times, and no harm done.

These facts explain the enthusiasm of the West over Mr. Roosevelt. He has the very qualities which would be admirable in a cowboy, a miner, or a Western sheriff. He sleeps with his boots on; he has physical strength and superb audacity; and when he is after his man, he rides straight for him, leaping all the fences at full speed. The Democrats, therefore, must reckon upon few votes in the regions where a cross-country gallop is still one of the best means of locomotion. Political wiseacres are talking sagely of Colorado, Montana, and Nevada, and it is uncertain as yet what may be the outcome in these States; but these few scattering votes will be of no avail to the Democrats, unless other States join the procession.

California has sometimes been spoken of as doubtful, but the best-informed observers agree that it is surely Republican. McKinley's plurality in 1900 was nearly 40,000; and by many Californians Roosevelt's style is more admired than McKinley's. Of the four leading papers of San Francisco, the *Chronicle*, *Call*, and *Bulletin* are stoutly Republican, while Hearst's *Examiner*, by talking about Parker as the friend of Belmont and Wall Street, is giving its Socialistic readers arguments against voting the Democratic ticket. Moreover, the policy of expansion has markedly stimulated trade in California. San Francisco has been the shipping and often the purchasing point for immense quantities of supplies, and returning soldiers have spent millions of dollars in the city. The Republican party is naturally regarded in California as the Providence from whom all these bounties have flowed.

Oregon is quite as surely Republican. It gave McKinley more than 13,000 plurality in 1900, and it has gone Republican in one election since. Most of the causes that operate in California are also effective here. Republican tradition, the personal popularity of President Roosevelt, and general complacency over expansion and trade with the Orient combine to secure and perhaps to strengthen the Republicans.

In Washington the conditions are somewhat different. The Democrats stand a chance of electing their candidate for Governor, but even the most sanguine have little or no hope of the national ticket. In the rural districts of Washington the feeling against the railroads is strong; for years the farmers have wanted a State Railway Commission. In this contest the Democrats have been their champions, while the Republicans have been lukewarm, if not actually in opposition. The State gave Bryan a plurality of more than 12,000 in 1896, but turned to McKinley again in 1900 with about the same plurality. In this very year 1900, however, it chose a Demo-

cratic Governor, John R. Rogers, by about 2,000 plurality, when the railways were made the State issue. This year the Democrats have nominated George Turner of Spokane, formerly United States Senator, while the Republican convention, palpably through railway influence, refused a nomination to Lieut.-Gov. Henry McBride, who had succeeded to the Governor's chair, and who had tried to spike the Democratic guns by leading the fight against the railways himself. The Democrats thus have a chance for the State ticket; but unless some new factors are brought into the struggle, they can hardly make headway for the national ticket.

The Democratic managers must therefore turn back to the Middle West. At present the two points of attack most discussed are Indiana and Wisconsin. In the latter, the Republican factional fight is the most serious problem to consider. In Indiana there is a large independent vote to which conservative Democrats have more than once made a successful appeal. In this part of the country, then, rather than on the Pacific Coast, the Democrats will rally recruits.

A YEAR OF THE GENERAL STAFF.

The General Staff of the Army, which began work just a year ago, has naturally had to devote the greater part of its energies since its establishment to completing its organization and settling the limits of the undefined field of activity which was assigned to it. Sufficient time, however, has elapsed to demonstrate some things clearly. The high standard set by the first selections for the Staff has been maintained in subsequent appointments due to promotions or resignations. The officers have gone about their work seriously and earnestly. None of the evils foreseen by the opponents of the Staff, notably by Gen. Miles, have as yet raised their heads. No one, for instance, has found that dangerous or hitherto unknown powers have been bestowed either upon the Chief of Staff or the Secretary of War because of the creation of the Staff.

So far as the Adjutant-General's Department is concerned, it has shrunk to a subordinate position, precisely as was foretold. It was this Department, presided over by Gen. Corbin, which had gradually acquired a few of the powers and duties of a general staff, simply because somebody had to do the work. This was quite evident in 1898, when Gen. Corbin found himself called upon to deal with matters properly belonging to a chief of staff or to a commanding general with power. Gen. Corbin was one of the first to see that, with the creation of the General Staff, his own Department became of secondary importance. His transfer to the line followed, although he is still carried on the rolls as "adjutant-general with the rank

of major-general." Shortly thereafter his Department was combined with the Record and Pension Office under the command of Brig.-Gen. F. C. Ainsworth of the latter bureau, and renamed the Military Secretary's Department. The work of its officers now more nearly approximates the merely clerical function originally intended by Congress than at any previous time for at least sixty years.

Some of the duties formerly performed by the adjutants-general and now in the hands of the General Staff have been those relating to the army schools, to-day more numerous and more effective than ever before. The Staff has worked hard over the courses at the various institutions with a view to systematizing them and making them all parts of a well-rounded whole, from the post schools for enlisted men to the War College at Washington, whose fine building is not yet complete. In this it has succeeded so far as success may be predicated before the new schools have shown their value or their defects in practice. In addition, the part of the Staff on duty in Washington has to its credit the revision of the order for the examination of officers for promotion, and a new edition of the cumbersome but necessary army regulations. The preparation of field-service regulations and of a new manual of the Quartermaster's Department is well under way, while the periodic modernization of the infantry drill regulations is now in the hands of the printer. A great deal of time has been given to the militia, and the relations of that body to the army have been made much closer than heretofore. If there is still need for the average regular officer to widen his view of the worth and the sphere of usefulness of the State troops, it may at least be said that the Staff is conscientiously striving to bring about better relations between the two bodies than have existed in the past.

The General Staff has also done a valuable work in rearranging the various garrisons and army posts in accordance with a comprehensive plan. That is, it has sought to station troops where they will be strategically most valuable, and, so far as possible, to put each branch of the service in posts best adapted to its training. Hand in hand with this duty, which would seem to have been filched from the Quartermaster's Department, there has gone on the collection of military information as to conditions at home and abroad, which is the primary function of a general staff. Last, but not least, earnest efforts have been made to bring the obsolete business methods of the War Department up to date so far as the laws permit.

Creditable as are these achievements of Gen. Chaffee's assistants, the most important question is, of course, What has been the influence of the General Staff

upon the service as a whole? So far as we have been able to observe, it has been a wholesome one. The members of the staff have the respect and sympathy of their fellow-officers. Such mistakes as have been made have been accepted as being largely due to unfavorable political influences at Washington, or to the pioneer nature of the work undertaken. For instance, the duties of General Staff officers at the division and department headquarters are not yet clearly defined. We know of some officers thus stationed who have practically had nothing whatever to do, while one talented officer gave up the General Staff work at Manila because he found a greater opportunity in the Philippine Constabulary.

Perhaps the most serious criticism which the General Staff has incurred—and justly—has been called forth by its efforts to influence legislation. If the General Staff is to retain its prestige and is to continue to be regarded as a help, and not a hurt, to the army, it must leave legislative matters absolutely alone. Recommendations to the Secretary and suggestions for reforms are always in order, but the preparation and passage of bills should be left to other and more disinterested hands, unless the Staff wishes to be considered as meddlesome a body as the Navy General Board. There are quite enough internal reforms needed to keep it busy for years to come. How to hold regimental commanders responsible for the conduct and the military efficiency of their officers and men; how to utilize the majors and lieutenant-colonels who are now useless fifth-wheels in our organization; how to make examining boards examine, survey boards survey, and retirement boards retire; how to get rid of the worthless but inoffensive officers who pass from one grade to another unhindered—these are a few of the vital questions, well within the field of the General Staff, which press for solution.

UNPUNISHED COMMERCIAL CRIME.

In the August number of the *Atlantic Monthly*, Mr. G. W. Alger grapples with a most conspicuous, if not a most important, subject. Fraud, he declares, has increased to an alarming extent. The world is full of it. The Sunday edition of almost any great metropolitan newspaper is crowded with advertisements of fraudulent schemes. There are the announcements of opportunities for the "small investor" to enrich himself quickly in gold mines or copper mines, or in patented inventions. Numberless sagacious and benevolent men intimate their readiness to disclose important intelligence concerning the movements of the stock market. "Business opportunities" of the most alluring character are set forth. Infallible cures of incurable diseases are offered. But the newspaper only reflects what actually goes on in

the business world. The process of bettering their own condition seems to a great many persons to mean getting the better of others. Nearly everything that one buys is adulterated; nearly everything that has won the favor of the public by its merits is fraudulently imitated. The number of failures is in the hundred thousands; and it is only necessary to examine an ordinary proceeding in bankruptcy to make it seem impossible for an honest dealer to succeed in business.

Nothing is more natural than to infer, as Mr. Alger does, that the criminal law should correct these conditions. That law, he says, was formulated to meet the requirements of an agricultural community. It was meant to protect the citizen from violence rather than fraud. But the peculiarly dangerous crimes of our day "affect not only the individual, but in a more immediate and special sense the moral welfare of the community itself. These crimes may be described roughly as crimes of fraud perpetrated either upon merchants or upon the general public. Fraud in obtaining credit by falsehood; fraud in concealing and conveying property to avoid the just demands of creditors; fraud in stealing trademarks; in bribing servants; in rebates; in promoting, managing, and wrecking corporations, etc., etc.

Yet those who are familiar with the operation of the criminal law, in the present as well as in the past, will hesitate to accept Mr. Alger's inference. No doubt fraud has increased; but there is no evidence to show that it has increased in proportion to business. Every one has read Macaulay's description of what went on at the time of the South Sea bubble; and there was not so much value in the South Sea Company as in our Amalgamated Copper Company, or even in the Shipbuilding Company. Whoever has the curiosity to look through the files of newspapers published a generation or two generations ago will find abundant evidence that our forbears were trying to cheat one another as vigorously and as successfully, if not as skilfully, as their descendants. The scale seems pitifully small; but it is the petty frauds that cause the keenest suffering.

Nor, if we admit that fraud increases even more rapidly than business grows, does it follow that the criminal law can afford a remedy. Mr. Alger speaks of crimes that nowadays affect not only the individual, but the community. There are no new crimes of this kind. There is no crime that does not affect the individual, and there can be no clear reasoning about crime when this is ignored. It is essential to the concept of crime that an individual should be injured; that his person should suffer pain, or his property be taken away from him against his will. Now in a great many of Mr. Alger's instances the sufferers part with

their property voluntarily. They know perfectly well that they are trying to get rich in an illegitimate way. They mean to speculate. They mean to gamble. When they lose, they will confess that they ought to have known better than to hand over their money to men whom they do not know, on the faith of advertisements written by nobody knows who. They will sometimes even confess that they were "served right," although they generally, and naturally, throw the blame on the promoter, or the newspaper, or the criminal law, or the institutions of society. Nothing is more instructive than to read in the autobiography of the late Henry George how that apostle of justice was led to discover the iniquity of landed property through the destitution to which a persistent course of gambling in mining stocks had reduced him.

No doubt it may be contended that Government should protect fools against the consequences of their folly; but we cannot say that such protection would be on the whole beneficial. Experience keeps a dear school, said Poor Richard, but fools will learn in no other. To speak plainly, the adult man or woman who undertakes to gamble—and buying an unknown quantity is gambling—deserves to lose. The only legitimate title to wealth rests on service rendered, and no service is rendered in "unloading" what is worthless on other people, for those who buy speculative stocks do not buy to hold, but to sell. They hope to sell them for more than they paid; but it is a wholesome dose of medicine when they have to sell them for less. People who have money to invest can find plenty of safe investments. There is an abundance of bonds and stocks that are wholly untainted with fraud; and if any one is so foolish as to believe statements that he can safely earn 10 or 20 per cent. with his money, no amount of criminal law will help him. He needs sense and conscience; without these he will not keep his money long in any conceivable human society.

Of course, we are not contending that men who make fraudulent representations should not be punished; on the contrary, we see great advantages in the English practice which allows an injured person to institute a criminal proceeding. Whitaker Wright, it will be remembered, would have escaped but for this practice, for the functionary corresponding with our "District Attorney" had declined to prosecute him. But when we consider the positively appalling state of our criminal jurisprudence, we shrink from adding to the list of crimes. Were such frauds as Mr. Alger specifies treated as heinous crimes by the law, the administration of justice would break down. Such acts are as many as the sands of the sea. All the jails in the country would not hold a tenth of the offenders. Juries would not convict them;

judges would not sentence them. It is idle to call any act a crime which does not arouse very general and very intense reprobation. Otherwise you simply encumber the statute book with useless words. What needs to be improved is the morals of the people. Dishonesty is shamefully prevalent; the amount of cheating and swindling that goes on is outrageous. It ought to be punished, and punishment is provided by statute to a considerable extent. But until there is genuine righteous indignation at such crimes—which can be felt only by those who are incapable of committing or profiting by them—the law has but little effect.

BOUNDARY READJUSTMENTS IN SOUTH AMERICA.

We are in receipt of a copy of the official English translation of the "boundary settlement" between Brazil and Bolivia, containing, besides minor documents relating to the subject, the treaty for the "Exchange of Territories and Other Compensations," signed at Petropolis, November 17, 1903. This treaty was intended to settle the notorious "Acre question," that had kept the two countries in a ferment since 1899, and came very near causing war. The boundary line between the two countries now gives to Brazil the country north of latitude 10° 20' as far west as the course of the Rapiran; thence it runs southwestward to the Aquiry, to about longitude 69° and south of the eleventh parallel, and finally to the Peruvian frontier in the west. Brazil acquires by this treaty considerable territory south of the parallel of 10° 20'. In compensation, Bolivia receives comparatively little territory, and mostly in the south, along the Paraguay River, but an indemnity in money of two million pounds sterling, to be invested in the construction of railroads, of which she is so much in need.

Bolivia was unquestionably right in claiming and attempting to hold, until 1903, the country north of latitude 10° 20'. She was legitimate possessor of it by anterior treaties. But there were circumstances connected with the peopling of Acre that rendered its possession not even advisable. This settlement resulted mostly from famines after 1867 which repeatedly devastated the Brazilian State of Ceará. The inhabitants of that State, driven from it by calamities against which they were helpless, preferred to trust a wilderness. They founded the india-rubber industry in Acre. Only in 1899 did Bolivia practically assert her sovereignty, which was not disputed. But at that very time rumors were circulated and documents published at Pará well calculated to alarm not so much the inhabitants of Acre as the Brazilians themselves. The Government may have regarded these documents (given out as official and impli-

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cating the United States) as apocryphal, but not so the public; to a certain extent at least apprehensions arose that the Bolivian holding of Acre might, through some treaty with an extra-South American power, become, in course of time, a menace to the integrity of Brazil. The establishment of Bolivian custom houses, while a perfectly legitimate act, became obnoxious through the manner in which they were administered. Owing to distance and difficulties of communication, Bolivia could do nothing for her citizens of Brazilian origin but collect export duties. This unfortunate condition was certainly made the most of by the Brazilian State of Amazonas, where the taxes collected by the Bolivians were coveted. The Brazilian Government stood aloof, but the people of Acre took up arms, demanding independence. This uprising was suffocated by Bolivia, and garrisons were established, at two points at least. The "Acre question" appeared settled.

But the contract entered into by Bolivia with the Bolivian Syndicate resurrected the troubles. Some of the clauses of this contract could but be regarded by Brazil with well-grounded apprehensions. Relinquishment of essential rights of sovereignty, on the part of Bolivia, in favor of a company foreign to South America, was akin to introducing in the heart of that continent, as Baron do Rio Branco observes, "the African and Asiatic system of chartered companies." Brazil protested at once, but her protests were of no avail. The Bolivian Government also received well-intentioned warnings, which it utterly disregarded. Then the Brazilians of Acre rose again, beset the Bolivian posts, captured the garrisons after some bloodshed, and returned the survivors to their own country. Gen. Pando, President of Bolivia, went to Acre at the head of a military expedition to subdue the insurrection. He reached as far north as the parallel of 10° 20', where he was notified that a step beyond would be regarded by Brazil as a *casus belli*. In the meantime, Brazil had bought out the Syndicate, and there was in reality no advantage in Bolivia's retaining territory extremely far off, difficult of access, and containing a population that would, even if conquered, have been a source of permanent trouble and outlay which Bolivian finances were not able to support.

The result of this (for Bolivia) extremely perplexing situation, which would have become much worse in case of war with Brazil, was the treaty of which the Brazilian Legation has favored us with a copy. This treaty settles, at least for the present, boundary disputes between Brazil and Bolivia, but leaves open differences of a similar nature between Brazil and Peru, which indirectly also affect Bolivia, or will affect her in course of time. There is an

other ticklish boundary matter pending between Peru and Bolivia regarding territories lying southwest of Acre. What will be the outcome of this and the Chilean question it is impossible to foresee. With Chile, Bolivia (like Peru) has no treaty—only a truce that has now lasted so long that the Chileans may soon invoke a prescriptive right regarding territories occupied by them since the "War of the Pacific."

POBLET.—II.

MONTPELLIER, June 29, 1904.

From the platform of the railway station at Esplugas the eye sweeps over acres of marvellous tillage until arrested at the foot of the hills, four kilometres away, by the golden-brown mass of buildings and enclosure wall. The whole countryside in the faultless June weather is ablaze with color and sunlight. That vehicle of torture, the Valencian *tartana*, waits for the unwary even so far north as this, and, springless, jolts the very ribs out of his frame over a road rough as the dry bed of a mountain torrent; but the mere suggestion that the traveller had rather walk provokes a clamor of derision, and for shame's sake we succumb. The unwilling mule varies the journey by stopping to kick flies from sensitive spots, upon which the *mayoral* considerably flicks them with a pliant rod—more kicking.

At first glance, the Monastery of Poblet presents from the outside hardly anything of an imposing or striking character. One realizes that buildings of this sort in Spain were frequently designed for interior, not exterior, effects, as though the conception had been to influence only such as entered upon a life entirely consecrated to worship. No doubt the monumental extent attracted the eye; still, there seems to have been little idea of touching the emotions through the help of an architectural mass. Per contra, the moment we pass the inner gates every step brings us face to face with new splendors; from every window or opening the outward view is glorious, whether on court or cloister, on mountain or fertile plain. What can escape no one is the exceptional skill with which all these buildings, sometimes erected over others already existing, were reduced to a most perfect harmony in virtually grouping themselves, without formal regularity, about the great central cloister. One gets definite knowledge of their numbers from the list in Salas, who states that the whole consisted of two distinct parts, the Clausura Exterior, with twenty-six separate constructions or departments, and the Clausura Interior, with thirty-four. To the former belonged workshops, the hostelry, a few chapels, and all the appurtenances connected with so completely organized a social life. As Mr. Mallock might say, "the servants were not to be seen walking about the pleasure grounds," or for that matter in the holy places. It is with the inner circle that we have to do, the palace occupied by the four hundred monks and their hosts of novices; with the religious club life, in other words, into which primitive monasticism had so naturally grown. Let me here express the hope that many other

tourists will enjoy the privilege of listening to the reconstitution of that splendid existence from Doña Magdalena, the amiable Spanish woman who never hurries a traveller or forces useless information on him; and yet Poblet is tourist-ridden every week in the year.

Passing under the vaulted portico with its mediæval fortress-towers, we are at once introduced to the matchless Claustró Mayor, so abounding in architectural variety that a study of its details might occupy one for weeks. Each of its four sides is conceived and executed according to a different scheme of arches and decoration in no way incongruous with its neighbors, the whole so perfectly blended that I doubt whether a casual glance would perceive the variety without assistance from guide-book or cicerone. It is worth noting that the opera of "Robert le Diable" still preserves, in many European theatres, the stage-setting originally given it in Barcelona from the Cloister of Poblet. Little damage has on the whole been done here; it is when we pass into the church that the ruin first appears. A great bare nave, with an immense sweep of just perceptibly pointed arches, stretches before us in desolation; royal tombs, organ, pictures, high altar, all vanished, or battered into hopeless mutilation by the succession of destroyers whose work I have yet to tell. Here was the spot consecrated to all earthly respect by the presence of remains that once held the souls of Aragonese heroes, remains now dispersed as the veriest sweepings of the common street. The *retablo mayor*, an immense piece of Renaissance carving in marble, the construction of which nearly ruined the abbey until relief came from private hands, is battered and broken, up to lance-reach; but in the wreck of it all you can still distinguish a delicacy of cut and polish showing what kind of artists the abbots of the time had had the judgment to employ. I must say that, compared with this and the royal tombs, the rest of the destruction is of lesser moment in my eyes. There are surely books enough to study in the world, apart from the former library of Poblet; where shall we find such a church as this was? In the neighboring apartments—Library, Sala Capitular, with the tomb-slabs of the abbots, the two Sacristies, Old and New—a far less ornate structure presented fewer points of effective impact for the blows of a mad, drunken mob.

Thus much for learning and spirituality. But the monks of Poblet, not unlike Rabelais's imaginary Thélémites, had an eye to the flesh as well. By far the greatest curiosity of the place is the perfect arrangement (very slightly damaged) of all the apartments devoted to the great god Gaster, and his near relation, *La Dîve Bou-teille*. In the Refectory, a high-vaulted room, the stone reading-desk offers from the far end a chance of testing with a passage from Murray or Baedeker how far the builders had consulted the carrying powers of the human voice; the acoustic conditions are perfect. No less so is the kitchen (far more imposing than that at Alcobaça), in a corner of which the keeper's small fire of charcoal looks like a mere speck. Within easy reach we find the butcher's department and the fish-room, with their respective runlets for the blood of slaughtered

animals, and their tanks of constantly renewed fresh water in which the creatures could disport themselves until their psychological moment came. Most striking of all, perhaps, are the oil and wine cellars, not abounding in such perishable ware as bottles, but containing monstrous stone tuns, like puncheons, some seven feet deep and five feet across, that were never allowed (so I understand) to sink below a certain level, however great the consumption of supplies. All around the wine-cellar runs a small trough of cut stone which, by ingenious calculation, was permanently inclined so as to feed in succession every vat. I have visited (and, fortunately, sampled the contents of) more than one commercial *bodega* in that land of luscious wines, and I do not remember to have ever seen a system of distribution more perfect in all its details. But the monastery vats have long been empty.

Connected with the building of the monastery, an interesting point is noted by Alegret in a chapter entitled "Signos Lapidarios." It seems that marks, masonic or other, have been found in great abundance here, as well as in the cathedrals of Barcelona and Tarragona; many of them indicating that a large proportion of the stonecutters must have been brought from the North—possibly from as far as Normandy. It would be fatuous on my part to do more than merely mention them. What is specially interesting is the partial defacement or alteration of them, here and there, possibly by local workmen belonging to other corporations and consequently jealous of foreign intrusion. Other hieroglyphics are referred to astrology. But insistence on this would constitute a digression. Besides, the Cyclopean walls of Tarragona, far earlier than the Roman remains in which the district abound, still show signs of analogous markings.

Enough has been said, without dwelling on the immense dormitory of the novices, the vacant treasury and archives for manuscripts, or the dreary royal apartments, to give the reader a general impression of the scale on which this community continued to live until the time came when its enemies considered that the day of usefulness had ended and the reckoning was to come. What that day signified we can now see from the upper windows that command masses of shattered walls, gaping windows, and a general wreckage through which not even the local guide can find a trodden way. The solidity of the central mass offered too much resistance to the destroyers to be dashed into mere heaps of stone; but almost all the outlying buildings, of the Clausura Interior appear as though they had undergone a siege. Possibly, in all the history of Poblet, there is nothing more interesting—there is certainly nothing more vividly dramatic—than this terminal moment of its religious existence.

Exactly how and why this body of monks had gradually worked up, without design, the hostility of its neighbors is still matter of dispute; Spanish historians are so often violently biased by extreme party spirit as to overlook the common experience that human motives are usually a blend. It would be idle to deny that the unchecked exercise of such feudal power as the abbots possessed must have begun to appear, even in Spain, an intolerable anachronism at the opening of the nineteenth century. Let

us think but a moment of the significance of absolute wood and water rights in such a country as this, where for centuries the denudation of the mountains had given the highest value to such privileges; and, indeed, the records are perfectly explicit on this point in declaring that between the monastery and the peasants collision had been frequent, resulting often enough in the murder of foresters and sometimes in the disappearance of a *campesino* caught in the act of fishing or wood cutting. There seems to have been likewise a good deal of high-handedness in abstracting or removing peasants who were slow in paying rent. These insignificant captives were not consigned, however, to the ghastly prisons where such Latin inscriptions as *Terribilis est locus iste!* were recently made out by Toda y Güell. Doubtless distinctions were made in the dungeons as well as in the Hospederia. But there is gossip still afloat about the country for the attentive to hear. It says that the high-living monks had given other grounds for popular hatred in general laxity of conduct, and that the first outbreak of violence from the village of Vimbodi in 1822 was in reality an expression of thoroughly aroused moral indignation. If we add to this the reactionary attitude of the Spanish clergy in general, we need seek no further motive.

At all events, the attack was made; the monks, it is said, stole out through a postern gate in the dark, having sent the chief treasures and a quantity of provisions to Esplugas; while the Vimbodi peasantry dashed in, and, after some confusion, fired the abbot's palace and the library, from which the flames spread to several of the adjoining apartments, damaging a quantity of perishable material. The best accounts declare that on this occasion the church was not touched. For two years the place was abandoned, people coming and going after taking what they pleased; but there was a forcible disgorging when political changes made it possible for the monks to return in 1825. There was at this time no *Bande Noire*, and all the sensational accounts representing the slaughter of monks in defence of their altar have been simply transferred from what did happen in the Napoleonic wars, or was invented by reactionary journalists; the peasants were apparently quite satisfied with this simple outbreak, which seems to have resulted in a considerable mitigation of the monks' methods during the few remaining years of their tenure. I myself feel disposed to accept the plain local testimony, which any traveller may yet find here if he chats with an aged peasant who still remembers the tales told by his father.

When we come to 1835 a different set of men, animated by other feelings, come into play. It was at this time that promiscuous slaying of monks by the liberals of Reus so terrified the returned inmates of Poblet that they again fled to Esplugas, leaving only one of their number and a handful of laborers in the place. The removal of valuables on this occasion was pretty thorough, for time had allowed for the hiring of mules and conveyances, but no one seems to have thought of library or archives, though we hear that several of the carts were scripturally laden with wine and oil. Here comes the culmination scene in the tragic destruction of Poblet. Turn the richest monastery in the world into impro-

vised barracks for undisciplined volunteers, whose profession of liberalism involves disobedience to their superiors, and the result is a foregone conclusion. The scenes that occurred when this mob of so-called patriots invaded the deserted echoing halls may be found described in a number of Spanish authorities, from contemporary reports down to the somewhat spasmodic Catalan of Toda y Güell or the more solemn denunciations of Don Victor Balaguer in stately literary Castilian. In simpler English phrase, the details are impressive enough. It was against the church and its royal tombs that the defenders of liberty turned their chief attacks, because of the political attitude which the community had very naturally adopted amid the wild chaos of struggle. Some have gone even so far as to insist that the smashing of the matchless *retablo* was ordered and directed by a liberal general. We can easily picture to ourselves the increasing frenzy of destruction after the first dash into the quiet sanctuary, when the first heads of statues had been knocked off and kicked about the pavement. I should suppose that, much in the same way, the Roundhead troopers grew rather fond of breaking stained windows.

The royal tombs were then broken open; the mummified corpses were first placed against the church wall, then dragged about by the neck and flogged with cord or battered with musket-butts. Whatever was of value of course disappeared; the lead of the coffins was pulled off for running bullets, even the metal of the great organ-pipes being applied to the same purpose; while the royal shrouds served as soldiers' blankets, or were disposed of to peasant women who turned them into children's cloths. All this was work; next came play. It is perfectly authenticated that on this night the volunteer mob, by this time no doubt a mass of yelling demoniacs, placed the gigantic corpse of Don Jaime I. of Aragón ("El Conquistador") as a sentinel at the great portal, with folded arms resting on a musket; with what remained of skulls and bones there then ensued the most wayward game of ninepins ever invented out of a madhouse. Were it not for the silliness of it all, some of the most accurate narratives might be deemed almost Dantesque. The game over, the remains were left lying about, and were not gathered together for some time, when the only readily identifiable body was that of Don Jaime I., from its size quite unmistakable. As Dryden says:

"When rattling bones together fly
From the four corners of the sky,"

it might be wished that the player of the game should obtain retributive justice in a manner better imagined than literally set forth.

All this is ugly enough; the sordid part is yet to come in the third destruction, deliberate, calculated, and yet perhaps more inexpressibly foolish than either of the other two. The attacks of peasants and volunteers are quite insufficient to account for the scene of wreckage that meets the eye in the vast mass of buildings surrounding the great central fane. Treasure-hunting began—a singular passion that seems to date in Spain from the days of early colonial possessions, the mines of Potosí and the Acapulco ship. The stories that you can hear all about the country are comically naïve. The monastery was once more de-

serted after the expulsion of the orders took place, and rumors grew of fabulous treasures forgotten by the monks in their haste, so that every person within convenient reach who possessed pick or shovel came (chiefly on Sundays and holidays) to dig about the place. Usually the treasure-seekers had a bit of mouldy parchment which stated that the hidden store was lying under the flags in the Abbot's room, in the sacristy, in the graveyard, anywhere; while the key of the fabulous chest would be discovered inside the hollow marble head of a sainted statue, in any one of the fifty or sixty chapels not yet broken into dust. The trick hardly ever fails in Spain, and I am even given to understand that it answers its purpose frequently enough, with slight modifications, in America; for it is surely needless to explain that the revealing scrip invariably comes from some Spanish jail, bought from a prisoner for a good round sum. However, a large chest was actually discovered in the inner library in 1841, and whetted eagerness to something very nearly like rage; and, again, some ten or eleven years ago the accidental finding of a small pot of coin induced a company of gentlemen (among them men of title) to obtain permission from the Government for investigation on a more systematic scale, which disclosed nothing more than a number of interesting underground rooms and cellars all covered up with the rubbish of earlier diggers, and added very considerably indeed to the elaborateness of our conception of this almost unique example of such a monastery.

Until the next revolution, ruined Poblet is safe. The declaring it a "national monument" keeps the diggers off, and there is really nothing left even for a tourist to steal. It is a poor consolation for the loss of all the beautiful things it contained to read in Balaguer that "several times the sons of the country have gathered in the monastery, and under the venerable arches of the Aula Capitulare rang the first enthusiastic speeches of patriots and the first blessed sounds of independence." The real sons of liberty, instead of making speeches, might well have wept in silence. No; the one reflection that the student may dwell on here with profit is, that devastated, silent Poblet is probably more impressive—it is certainly richer in historical suggestion—than when its abbots trod to mass in mitred pomp and were the hosts of kings.

P. T. L.

THE CHEVALIER D'ÉON.

PARIS, August 7, 1904.

The Chevalier d'Éon has long been one of the most enigmatical figures in French history. He has lately been made the subject of an interesting volume, based on inedited documents, by MM. Octave Homberg and Fernand Joussetin. The authors tell us at once that D'Éon, who long gave himself out as a woman, was in reality a man.

"A succession of adventures, after a brilliant career as soldier and diplomat, led him to a metamorphosis which his delicate appearance and his astonishing ingenuousness caused to be accepted, with a facility that is the true mystery of his life, by the King and his Ministers, as well as by the companions of his youth. Having thus become, by his own free will, the heroine of

this century, D'Éon found himself the prisoner of a part which he played till death with a stupefying perfection."

His first biographer was Gaillardet, a novelist who became famous in his turn by his collaboration with Alexandre Dumas the elder. The Duke de Broglie, in his 'Secret du Roi,' had to deal with D'Éon as one of the most active and courageous agents of the secret diplomacy of Louis XV. MM. Homberg and Joussetin were so fortunate as to acquire not long ago the papers and correspondence of D'Éon, which had been confiscated by one of his numerous creditors and kept for more than a century in the drawer of an English bookseller. They have used these, as well as the diplomatic documents preserved in the archives of our Foreign Office, and certain documents belonging to the city of Tonnerre, where D'Éon was born on the 5th of October, 1728. His father was Louis D'Éon de Beaumont, a director of the King's domains. At the age of twelve he was sent to Paris, and pursued brilliant studies at the Collège Mazarin. He became doctor in civil law and doctor in canon law, and secretary to M. Bertier de Sauvigny, a friend of his family, intendant of the generality of Paris.

The Prince de Conti became one of his patrons, recommended him to Louis XV., and obtained permission for him to accompany the Chevalier Douglas to Russia and to second him in a secret mission. He thus became a member of the mysterious cabinet which was under the King's supervision and consisted of the Prince de Conti, the Count de Broglie, and Tercier, first clerk of the Foreign Office. We have only lately become acquainted with this mysterious government — this government against the Government; it was a sort of counterpoise to the indolence and timidity of the King. This secret diplomacy, which aimed to correct the mistakes of the official diplomacy, often resulted only in paralyzing the efforts of the French agents; it never attained any important object, and was, on the whole, a perpetual riddle. The King himself, and he once confessed it, was often lost in the intricacies of his double diplomacy; he once wrote to Tercier that "il s'embrouillait un peu."

The most tangible object of Louis XV. was to assure the crown of Poland to the Prince de Conti, but it was never realized. The mission of Mackenzie Douglas was connected with this object. He had followed the cause of the Stuarts and offered his services to France. He was sent to Russia in order to fathom and counteract the plans of England. A legend will have it that the Chevalier d'Éon presented his niece, Mlle. Lia de Beaumont, to Count Vorontzoff, Vice-Chancellor of the Empire, and that Vorontzoff presented her to the Empress Elizabeth. This legend was not accepted by the Duke de Broglie, but the question of Douglas's employment as a diplomatic agent still remains obscure, as well as the question of the part which D'Éon played in his affairs. D'Éon certainly had several very private interviews with the Empress. It is possible that, in order the better to escape attention, he had on some occasion the idea of disguising himself as a woman. This would explain the legend which was long current. The delicate features and the stature of D'Éon made it easy for him to be taken for a woman.

The services which D'Éon rendered in

Russia were such that on his departure he received the most complimentary thanks from Douglas, as well as presents from the Empress Elizabeth. D'Éon was charged to bring in person to Versailles the details of the negotiations which had secured the accession of the Empress to the Franco-Austrian alliance, and Russia's rupture with England and Prussia. After a difficult and at times dangerous journey, D'Éon arrived in Paris, preceding by only a few hours the Prince of Kaunitz, who brought the same news from Vienna. Louis XV. was so well satisfied with the messenger that he gave D'Éon a gratification out of his private purse, a snuff-box with pearls, and a brevet of lieutenant of dragoons. D'Éon had broken a leg during his journey back to France; the King sent him his own surgeon, and during his convalescence D'Éon wrote a memoir on his mission and on the policy of Russia. In his inedited papers we see that the secret intention of the Court of Russia was, on the death of Augustus III., to fill Poland with its troops so as to be absolute mistress of the election of the future King, and to take possession of a part of Poland "so as to accomplish the favorite plan of Peter the Great, who desired to bring his frontier nearer to Germany that he might play a part in it."

D'Éon afterwards rejoined in Russia the Marquis de l'Hôpital and returned to France, bearer of the treaty of 1758. He had grown tired of Russia. He entered the army and became aide-de-camp to Marshal de Broglie, and distinguished himself during the Seven Years' War, but again left the army and reentered the diplomatic service in order to accompany the Duke of Nivernais to London. The Duke's object was to conclude a peace with England. He was a favorite of Madame de Pompadour, who called him familiarly "mon cher petit époux," and had been chosen as the best ambassador, and D'Éon was attached to him as the cleverest and best informed of secretaries. The negotiations, which ended in the peace of 1763, were very difficult. After the treaty was concluded, D'Éon carried to Paris the ratifications of the treaty, and on this occasion received as a reward the cross of Saint Louis.

The Count de Guerchy was appointed successor to the Duke de Nivernais, and for a time D'Éon, who had received the rank of minister plenipotentiary, represented the embassy *ad interim*. He had a quarrel with the Count de Guerchy, the details of which have lost all interest, and which ended in his leaving the regular diplomatic service. He continued, however, to be a secret agent of the King and to correspond with the Count de Broglie. His love of intrigue induced him to take an active part in English politics. He had made the acquaintance of the celebrated Wilkes. "Will you have a sedition here," he wrote to Broglie, "at the return of Parliament, at the next elections? There will be so much needed for Wilkes, so much for others. . . . Wilkes costs us very dear, but the English have the Corsican Paoli, whom they have received and whom they feed on our account. It is a bomb which they keep all ready to throw among us at the first opportunity. Let us keep bomb for bomb." Princess Dashkoff was at the time exiled in London. She was the niece of Vorontzoff, who had so powerfully helped Catherine II. to ascend the

throne. (Herzen wrote her memoirs.) She told everybody that D'Éon entered the imperial palace at St. Petersburg in woman's clothes, and succeeded in being admitted to the circle of the Empress's maids of honor. D'Éon's sex became a subject of curiosity in London, and bets were freely made on the subject. This story of the Princess Dashkoff crossed the Channel, and it soon became current that the Chevalier d'Éon was a woman. Many caricatures and songs were made on the subject. There is a curious letter from Miss Wilkes, daughter of the famous politician, addressed to D'Éon, in which she asks him if he is a man or a woman: "The chevalier would be very kind if he spoke the truth about it to Miss Wilkes. He would be still more amiable if he came to-day to dine with her and her papa."

D'Éon contrived, while he was in England, to render some secret services to the King and to Madame du Barry; he was charged to prevent the publication of certain pamphlets. But bad times were coming for him; the King had become tired of his own famous "secret"; the Ministers had discovered it; the Count de Broglie was sent into exile. Then came the death of Louis XV.; his successor, Louis XVI., put an end to the secret bureau, but by the influence of the Count de Broglie D'Éon obtained a pension. He was deeply in debt, and his creditors became so troublesome that he found it convenient for his safety to dress as a woman. He succeeded in obtaining a secret mission to England, but went there as a Chevalière d'Éon. I cannot follow him through all his intrigues and in his incessant quarrels with Beaumarchais. He returned to France by permission of Count de Vergennes, but after a while he was obliged to leave off his woman's dress, and was sent to the prison of Dijon. He was presently set free, but was exiled to Tonnerre. We find him leading a quiet life till he returned in 1785 to London, to settle his numerous affairs and to pay his creditors. He tried to sell his papers and his manuscripts, without much success. He heard in England the first news of the French Revolution; he came back as "the citoyenne Geneviève d'Éon," and professed the most Jacobin doctrines. He was in very straitened circumstances, and gave fencing lessons for a living. There is not much to say about his last years; he died in London May 21, 1810.

On the whole, D'Éon, with the instincts of an adventurer and a certain amount of cleverness, would be quite forgotten but for the legend attached to him, the part he played in Russia in his youth, and his connection with the "Secret du Roi," which is one of the most curious incidents in the life of Louis XV.

Correspondence.

GERMAN-AMERICAN UNDERSTANDING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. W. A. Stille's letter, in your issue of August 18, calling attention to Professor Münsterberg's new book, 'Die Amerikaner,' speaks of the ignorance in Germany of things American. While the Harvard professor is, as Mr. Stille says, highly com-

petent for his task of interpreting things American for the benefit of the Germans, their ignorance, before his book appeared, could not have been as dense as Mr. Stille supposes. Two books, at least, worth mentioning, were published last year in Germany, pursuing the same object, Goldberger's 'Das Land der unbegrenzten Möglichkeiten,' economic studies, and Polenz's 'Das Land der Zukunft,' social studies; both, within a few months, republished four times, testifying to the German mind's readiness to be enlightened and to cultivate mutual esteem. They deserve a place very near Professor Münsterberg's work, and are, probably, as interesting to the American reader as to the German. There is nothing more instructive than to see ourselves as others see us.

Mr. Stille's desire for a counterpart to 'Die Amerikaner' about Germany and the Germans should, indeed, be gratified, and such a man as Professor Gregory of Leipzig, being in a position perfectly analogous with Münsterberg's—a native American holding a professorship in a German university—might undertake the task most profitably.

Respectfully, ERNST E. LEMCKE.
New York, August 19, 1904.

Notes.

At the recent Petrarch Congress at Arezzo, Monsignor Salvadori announced that the Vatican Library was about to begin publication of a facsimile of such of the manuscripts in its possession as were either written or annotated by Petrarch. The Proceedings of the Congress itself will be published.

The Oxford Clarendon Press is undertaking an "Oxford Modern French Series," edited by Léon Delbos, M.A., with an eye to "students who have advanced some little way in their knowledge of the French language," and do not need elementary annotation. Hence the notes will deal mainly with points of literary or historical interest. Next month the first eight volumes will appear, reckoning Lamartine, Balzac, Hugo, Sandeau, Châteaubriand, A. Karr, Gozlan, and Tocqueville (extracts from his journeys).

Messrs. Putnam's fall publications will include 'The Story of the United States,' by Prof. Edward Earl Sparks, and 'Breaking the Wilderness,' or the conquest of the Far West, by Frederick S. Dellenbaugh.

A biography of Thomas Nast, by Albert Bigelow Paine, is in the press of Macmillan Co.

The articles on municipal misgovernment and the attempt to prevent it, which appeared last year in *McClure's Magazine*, have been republished in book form by their author, Mr. Lincoln Steffens, under the title of 'The Shame of Cities' (McClure, Phillips & Co.). The stories are told with much plainness and even coarseness of speech, and are as interesting as stories of crimes and their detection seem always to be. The record of corruption is dismal enough, and we do not find much encouragement in the account of the proceedings by which exasperated citizens have dethroned their oppressive rulers. Fighting the devil with fire is dangerous work, and is apt, even if temporarily successful, to have dangerous

consequences. Mr. Steffens correctly observes that the root of the evil is to be found in the general disposition to make use of the institution of government for individual advantage. He does not suggest any method of making government less available for such purposes, and even seems to think that municipal ownership may be a remedy for municipal corruption. Until the number of offices is diminished, the compensation of officeholders reduced to correspond with the real value of their services, and the principle of serving the public without pecuniary compensation much more widely extended, venality will continue to be our curse.

Mr. J. G. Rosengarten's 'American History from German Archives, with reference to the German Soldiers in the Revolution and Franklin's Visit to Germany' (Lancaster, Pa.) is a reprint of this writer's articles in various periodicals at various dates, now made in the interest of the Pennsylvania German Society. The collection necessarily involved much repetition; and the effort to make bibliography readable can hardly be said to have been successful. On the other hand, the absence of formal classified lists of original documents published or accessible or known to exist, greatly detracts from the value of the survey. This disorder, partly atoned for in an index, is foreshadowed in the table of contents, where we might have expected to find each chapter labelled with the place and date of its original appearance. The volume is prettily embellished, and contains numerous portraits of German officers, facsimiles, a map, etc. The chapter on "German Soldiers in the French Service" reminds us that at Yorktown "German soldiers held the trenches on both sides when the surrender was finally made. German regiments under the French and American flags received the surrender of German regiments, Anspach and Hessian, serving under the British flag."

If charm were a mere accomplishment and could be taught, most of us would take lessons. But the charmer is born, not educated, and the intelligent do not need the advice to resolve, like Sydney Smith, "to be natural, and let the world find me out." In her 'Charm and Courtesy in Conversation' (Dodd, Mead & Co.) Miss Frances B. Callaway devotes some two hundred pages to the art of polite intercourse. Her assumption that unselfishness is the essence of charm is an agreeable fiction which the facts of any one's experience will contradict. It is a negative quality, and your born charmer is usually made up of positive qualities and asserts himself vigorously. Courtesy, too, as all Miss Callaway's anecdotes prove, is mainly negative, and her little textbook is nothing more than a collection of hints how to avoid rudeness. We fear that the charm of Madame Récamier, even in her old age, hardly depended on "her thoughtfulness for others" (p. 197). Hard as it is to be thoughtful for others, to charm them is, no doubt, harder still, and no such manual as this can impart the power to please and shine, or disclose a single one of the secrets of that art.

For American travellers the most important item in Anne C. Wilson's 'Hints for the First Years of Residence in India' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde) is the statement in regard to the

size of boxes (trunks) which may be carried in the cabin (not over fourteen inches in height, two feet in width, and three feet in length). This little manual is designed for the use of officers and civilians in the British service; and for those who wish to know what personal, household, and camp equipment is needful in India, no better list of articles—the booklet is scarcely more than a list of articles and hints—is obtainable.

In 'St. Helena,' by E. L. Jackson (London: Ward, Lock & Co.), will be found the main facts and incidents in the history of the island from the time, 1513, of its first human inhabitant, a Portuguese nobleman exiled there for desertion, to the departure of the Boer prisoners in 1902. The natural features are described, and a guide-book account is given of Jamestown and its immediate neighborhood, together with lists of Government officials and local institutions. As the historical part consists largely of documents, extracts from official records and personal narratives, and as the author's notes, often of very trivial matters, made during a painstaking research into the voluminous material at hand, are all thrown together without regard to literary style, the book can interest very few not immediately connected with the island. Still, notwithstanding its failure to attract the general reader, examination will bring to light some noteworthy facts. A striking illustration, for instance, will be found of the growth of humanity in the past two centuries by comparing the cruel punishments once legally inflicted on slaves with the tribute to the hospitality of the islanders from the negroes who afterwards found a refuge from the slave-ships; and, we may add, a similar testimony given by the Boers on their departure. "The kindness shown to the prisoners of war one and all by the people of the island," they said, "with very few exceptions, is a fact which will be long remembered and cherished by them as a bright speck in the gloomy days of captivity." Considerable space is of course devoted to Napoleon, and to his love for children. The photographs, especially those of the scenery, are attractive, and help one to understand in a measure the affection for the "old rock" which causes many to say, "St. Helena has only one entrance and no exit."

The third edition of the second volume of Dr. W. Cunningham's elaborate work, 'The Growth of English Industry and Commerce in Modern Times,' appears in two parts (Cambridge, Eng., University Press; New York: Macmillan). The greater portion of the volume, the author states, has been more than once rewritten; and he declares it impossible to explain how immensely the book has gained from the coöperation of Miss Lilian Tamm. Two objects have been kept in view in this investigation—to set forth the connection between the political and the economic history of England, and to describe and account for the actual course of the material progress of the country. The latter object appears to us to be inadequately attained; possibly it could not be attained without more rigid adherence to scientific methods. The fact that an observer at a former period declared a certain state of facts to exist often affords no evidence of its existence; we need only read current representations to understand

this. Nothing is easier than to overlook causes, unless it be to assign results to wrong causes. The chief value of the work lies in its record of the attempts of English rulers to direct the industry of their subjects. It is significant that, in a postscript, the author gives a cautious approval of Mr. Chamberlain's proposals.

Prof. John Bates Clark has recently delivered a course of lectures in Cooper Union which are now published by Macmillan under the title 'The Problem of Monopoly.' The purpose of these lectures is "to apply to important problems economic principles which have recently become known." We do not find these novel principles clearly stated, unless in the suggestion that great corporations may be wisely controlled by means of the initiative and referendum; and in the declaration that the lecturer is "in favor of doing the impossible." He proposes legislation to correct the selfishness of human nature as exhibited by the managers of monopolies, and apparently thinks that if the laws he approves were enacted, they could be made to work by our political machinery. But the task of fixing prices by statute is beyond the power of government, and merely to suggest it opens an appalling vista of corruption.

Professor Villa's 'Contemporary Psychology,' translated by the Italian attaché at Paris, M. Manacorda, under the editorial supervision of Professor Muirhead, might easily have been rendered a decidedly useful work of reference. It is pleasantly written, and, on the whole, nicely translated, and contains abundant information. Its standpoint also (that of Wundt) and its judgment seem sound, and it lays proper emphasis on the modern voluntarist as against the traditional intellectualist interpretations of mental processes. But these excellent qualities are unfortunately marred by serious defects. There is too much prolixity and repetition, and the proofreading has been so scandalously imperfect that every date and every proper name must be regarded with suspicion. When, e. g., the life of Wolff is protracted to one hundred and five years (p. 12), it is natural to ascribe this to a misprint, but even this theory breaks down when Hermann von Helmholtz is disguised as William (p. 106). The index also, which in a work of this kind should be particularly complete, is quite inadequate.

We have received from the Mississippi Department of Archives and History a copy of the first 'Official and Statistical Register' of that State, an octavo volume of 700 pages, copiously illustrated. Great labor has been well expended on this compilation, and it is a valuable manual in reference to the history and actual government of Mississippi—charter and personnel. The State's Senators and Representatives in Congress, and own Executive and Legislature, are biographically sketched, and the corresponding series of photographic likenesses is well deserving of study. Governor Vardaman, of ill-repute as the high priest of racial reaction, was born in 1861—a depressing anomaly, especially in view of the table headed "Mississippi Leader in Great Reforms." She invented, more's the pity, the elective judiciary, and was the first State "to solve the problem of white supremacy in the South by lawful means." This, as appears from the (present) Constitution of 1890, was effected by an impartial grant of

suffrage to every male inhabitant (sane, taxpaying, and non-criminal), - \$241; with a supplementary qualification (the negro in the woodpile) as to reading and expounding the Constitution, \$244. Columbus's egg was nothing to this "Mississippi idea." The chronicle of events from De Soto could not help being tinged with Reconstruction feeling. In another particular it might have been expected to be more frank. The issue of five millions of State stock in 1839 is selectively not followed by record of its repudiation two years later. The State has been liberal to women, and claims the first institution of higher learning for them (1819; but the female seminary at Byfield, said to have been the first in Massachusetts, was founded in 1806). The Register is to be renewed every four years, and its beginning is highly praiseworthy.

An excellent beginning has been made by the Department of Anthropology of the University of California in its publications relating to American Archaeology and Ethnology, with Pliny Earle Goddard's 'Life and Culture of the Hupa,' a tribe once curiously secluded, and occupying a valley of the Trinity River, in the northwestern corner of California. Mr. Goddard lived among these people for three years, and his well-written account of them is minute and authoritative. The illustrations are mostly of dress and utensils. There is the usual sad story of the demoralizing effects of contact with the whites.

Our rivers, whose value as waterways is now so greatly lessened by the construction of railroads, are expensive facilities at the best. The Report of the Chief of Engineers, U. S. Army, for 1903, recounts the work done in removing the famous "raft" from the Red River of Louisiana. It was ninety-two miles long when work on it began in 1828. A channel through it was completed in 1857, at a cost of over \$1,000,000. No work was then done for fifteen years, and the results of a large part of the earlier work were thus lost. In 1872 the river was again closed for thirty-two miles by the "raft," a great accumulation of snags, stumps, and leaning trees; the wrecks of more than 200 steamboats lay in the channel between the river mouth and the head of navigation. From 1872 to 1903, more than \$1,600,000 has been spent on this river; the channel is now clear, and at the head of the "raft" the river bed has been worn down fifteen feet, thus diminishing floods and allowing the reclamation of much productive land where there was formerly a network of lakes and bayous. The annual average value of freight on the river is now \$5,132,360.

From the same source we learn that the unruly Mississippi is giving much trouble by trying to desert Vicksburg. Before 1876 that city, well situated on the bluffs near the mouth of the Yazoo, had the finest harbor on the river, with not less than twenty-five feet of water in any part. A cut-off of the bend that led the river by the city bluff occurred on April 27, 1876, and the abandoned channel, or ox-bow lake, "Lake Centennial," was so much shoaled by the deposition of silt where the new channel crossed its ends, as practically to destroy the harbor. A great amount of money has since then been spent upon it; partly in dredging a deep channel, partly in revetting Delta Point, on the west bank, so as to prevent

still further withdrawal of the river from the wharves; nearly \$400,000 has been expended on the latter object. But the average annual value of commerce in Vicksburg harbor and the Yazoo River is \$8,753,650. It was an expensive but apparently indispensable work of this sort that \$13,000,000 was spent last year on "Rivers and Harbors."

The main result of the German Antarctic expedition, described by its leader, Dr. E. von Drygalski, in the *Geographical Journal* for August, during its twenty-eight months' work, fourteen in the polar ice, was the discovery of a new land which has been named Kaiser Wilhelm II. Land. Though this determines the nature and extent of the continent for more than ten degrees of longitude, it does not solve the question whether the continent is continuous or a collection of large islands intersected by narrow straits and inlets. Dr. Drygalski is to give a lecture at the coming meeting of the International Geographical Congress at Washington. A "Journey in Angola," by Capt. Cuningham, relates to an almost unknown part of West Africa, "densely populated, some of the kraals containing 2,000 to 3,000 inhabitants." Several of those visited "were peopled entirely by blacksmiths working the abundant ironstone. It is a notable fact that apprentices are sent from great distances to these 'smithy kraals' to be taught the art of working that metal." Many of the natives are employed in rubber collecting, and a merchant gave this significant testimony to the value of British methods of dealing with them. He said that among a crowd of rubber-carrying natives "were four men from the Zambesi, who refused to take the customary present of *aguardiente*, which is served out preparatory to trading. They said they came from British country, where 'strong water' was interdicted, and were quite ready to trade without it." He was informed of the existence of the ruins of a fortress-like building of unmortared granite blocks near his route, but did not visit them.

The Corsican is the subject of the article of widest interest in the *Annales de Géographie* for July, and certainly a striking picture is drawn of a most peculiar people: Living in a land of sea-girt mountains, the sea has no part in his life. He is neither sailor nor fisherman, but simply a shepherd, showing the distinctive characteristics of the pastoral life in his dislike of all manual labor and desire for isolation. Few of the natives live on the sea-coast; and they have always regarded with hostility the strangers who sought their shores, from the ancient Greeks, Phœnicians, and Carthaginians to the Pisans and Genoese of modern times. The Romans alone seem to have succeeded in colonizing the island and developing its great natural resources. For though "the Corsicans have *l'âme française*, France exercises but little influence over them," writes the author, a French official. This love of isolation was shown in their relations to each other. Their walled villages, with houses two or three stories high, perched on almost inaccessible cliffs, were veritable citadels in which the people lived a life separate from those of the neighboring village. There was no concentration, no national life; even as late as 1800 the little community of Asco "formed a distinct republic, administered by elected elders." The social and political life rests up-

on the family, and the Corsicans' primitive form of justice is the vendetta. "A gun," they say, "is worth more than a judge." Next to their flocks their most precious possession is the chestnut, and the wealth of a family is reckoned by the number of these trees it possesses. The manual labor of cutting wood, building, cultivating the ground, is done almost wholly by some 20,000 Italians who come annually to the island for six months. In one way only does the young progressive Corsican show any longing for contact with the outside world. His one absorbing aim is to become a functionary of the French Government, first of all in the army, for "*chacun croit avoir l'étoffe d'un petit Napoléon*"; but if not there, in any position where one can command and wear a uniform.

One of the most significant results of the awakened interest in education in England is the establishment of a faculty of commerce and administration at Manchester University. Its aim is to give a systematic training in the higher commercial subjects, methods of government and administration, and in economic and social investigation. Among the languages in which instruction is offered are Chinese, including writing and pronunciation, and Arabic, including spoken dialects. Associated with the professional teachers are men engaged in business; banking will be taught, for instance, by men practically conversant with the business of a bank. The course for the degree of bachelor will include, besides general studies, two modern languages as well as one or two special subjects, while for that of master, bachelors of three years' standing who have carried on advanced studies and presented an acceptable thesis, will be eligible. The felt need of a broadening of university education is also shown at Oxford by the establishment of a diploma in economics. The scheme of examination combines a general knowledge of the principles of economics and of the recent commercial and industrial history of the United Kingdom, with a more detailed acquaintance with special subjects, to be selected from a wide range of choice, in theoretical, historical, and applied economics. The lectures and instruction, beginning next October, will be open not only to members of the University, but to others intending to pursue a business career or to enter the public service, as well as to foreigners and women students. This is very likely to attract the Rhodes scholars, of whom a large number are expected at Oxford in the new academic year.

Still another indication of this educational awakening is the Workingmen's College in London, the foundation stone of whose new buildings was laid by the Prince of Wales on July 16. This institution was founded by Frederic Denison Maurice, Thomas Hughes, and others in 1854, the idea from the start being that educated men should give to the workman something of that which they had learned at the university; and zealous teachers have never been wanting. The average number of students for the past six years has exceeded 600, but with the new accommodations, which will include electrical and chemical laboratories, a large increase is expected.

A remarkable feature of industrial education in Germany, emphasized by Deputy-Consul Meyer, in his reports on this sub-

ject, is that in the workmen's schools of the lowest grade the three great subjects of instruction are German, arithmetic, and drawing. By German is meant, not the language, but the constitution of the Empire and the organization of the various states and principalities, the laws regulating trades, labor, commercial courts, savings banks, taxation, and religious teaching. Arithmetical instruction is not confined to the multiplication table, but includes book-keeping, loans, interest, and a study of the statutes regulating checks, drafts, and bills of exchange. In connection with many of these schools "student homes" have been established where young men may come, especially on Sunday afternoons, for lectures, games, songs, declamation, amateur theatricals, etc. In the curriculum of the schools for builders and engineers there is what is termed the "Samaritan course," covering instruction in the care of the body, treatment of wounds, and first aid to the wounded—a praiseworthy feature which should be introduced in every technical school in this country.

An Index to the Daily Consular Reports for 1903 has just been issued by the Department of Commerce and Labor. The six to seven thousand entries, many of them being cross-references, are arranged alphabetically according to countries, subjects, and officers. It forms a valuable reference book to sources of information on a great variety of subjects of practical present-day importance.

A curious discussion has been carried on lately in the columns of the *Beilage* of the Munich *Allgemeine Zeitung* on the merits and demerits of the Austrian universities as compared with those of Germany for the development of original scholarship. The occasion for the debate was furnished by Professor Czerny of Heidelberg, who, in a *Festrede* published in the *Deutsche Medizinische Wochenschrift*, declared in favor of the Austrian institutions, basing his conclusion chiefly on the ground that, in the non-theological faculties of the German universities, there were thirty-three Austrian full professors, while in the Austrian there are only twenty-three Germans. Inasmuch as professors rather accept calls from Austria to Germany than from Germany to Austria, the Austrians appear to cross the borders for their university men only when they cannot find suitable candidates at home. To this an interesting reply is published in No. 92 of the *Beilage*, by a protagonist of the German schools, who draws attention to the fact that there are 985 non-theological full professors in the German universities, and only 300 in the Austrian; that, accordingly, only 3.35 per cent. of German professorships are filled by Austrians, but 7.67 per cent. of Austrian professorships by the Germans. A better basis for comparison the writer finds in the German universities of Switzerland, where there are forty-three German full professors but only three Austrian. The discussion has called forth so much feeling that the editor declares the debate closed as far as the columns of the *Beilage* are concerned, but he himself takes his stand against Czerny.

There has lately been placed in St. Paul's Church, Wickford, R. I., a tablet which reads thus: "Sacred to the memory of a native of Narragansett, GILBERT STUART, son of Gilbert and Elizabeth Anthony

Stuart, born at the old snuff-mill, North Kingston, December 3, 1755; baptized at St. Paul's Church, Palm Sunday, April 11, 1756; died, after a life full of honors, at Boston, July 27, 1828. The painter of George and Martha Washington, of Adams, Jefferson, Madison, and Monroe, of George III. of England and of his son, afterwards George IV., his incomparable portraits have given him a chief place in the history of American art. Erected by public subscription A. D. 1904." The list of subscribers contains many well-known Boston and Rhode Island names. Stuart's Presidential series might have included John Quincy Adams.

—The seventh volume of 'Meyer's Konversations-Lexikon' (Leipzig: Bibliographisches Institut; New York: Lemcke & Buechner) passes from Franzensbad to Glashaus, a tract not remarkable for great personal names but having a fair amount of economic rubrics (glass, foundries, weaving, etc.), scientific (geology, insects injurious to vegetation, poisonous plants along with garden flowers), historical-geographical (Germania and Rome's northern provinces in the middle of the second century A. D.), etc. The section on Mountains is freely illustrated. The Mammoth Geyser of Yellowstone Park is pictured in color. There are maps of French India, of Germania as just mentioned, of Geneva and Genoa. One is struck by four captions of Gentleman, Gentleman-driver, Gentleman-like, Gentleman-rider. The woman question is allowed four and a half pages, but the American aspect is very imperfectly grasped and presented; and here as in other places one feels the need of special American collaboration for what relates to the United States in this standard work. We cut no figure in the bibliography of the woman's-rights agitation. A particularly German feature is the article *Gesinde* or Servants, with its list of statutory regulations in various parts of the Empire. Those for Brandenburg, Pomerania, Posen, etc., go back to Stein and Hardenburg (1810). Equally German is the showing of governmental interference with the sale of patent medicines (*Geheimmittel*), and here we deal with actuality, for the provisions of the Bundesrath's decree of May 23, 1903, taking effect January 1, 1904, are set forth—how these medicines may be dealt in wholesale; how the retailer may sell only on written prescription; how the wrappers may not contain puffs or preposterous claims of panacea, and the like. The "American Coughing Cure" falls under these restrictions, as do "A—'s Cathartic Pills" and "Sarsaparilla," "W—'s Safe Remedies," "Mother S—'s Pills" and "Syrup," "Vin M—l," "Liqueur du Docteur L—," "Sirup Pagliano"—a column and a half of them, of many origins, European and foreign.

—Every one who knows anything about Stubbs is familiar with his love of reading proof-sheets, and it will be remembered that, in the preface to a volume of his Oxford lectures, he playfully accounted for their publication by alluding to the strength of this mania. However, he was not led by his love of correcting proofs to publish all his utterances, though doubtless we should be glad to possess every address which he delivered after he passed the age of twenty-five. Learning, clearheadedness, sagacity, were qualities which marked his work from first to last, and there is good reason,

prima facie, to welcome such of his posthumous works as may see the light from time to time through the care of his disciples. We make the foregoing observations because Mr. Arthur Hassall has published a volume entitled 'Lectures on European History' (Longmans) which contains a series of more than thirty addresses delivered by Stubbs when he was Regius Professor. The subjects of these discourses may occasion a certain amount of surprise, for Stubbs is usually thought of either as an editor of mediæval chronicles or as a writer on the constitutional history of England. The breadth of his acquirements was probably unsuspected during his lifetime by the reading public at large, and for a younger generation the fame of one great work has been an obstacle to the recognition of its author's universal learning in things historical. These lectures deal neither with the Middle Ages nor with English constitutional history, but with the development of 'Continental Europe during the period from Charles V. to the Peace of Westphalia. Divided into three courses, they treat respectively of "The Emperor Charles V.," "The Political History of Europe from the Resignation of Charles V. (to 1618), and "The Political History of Europe during the Thirty Years' War."

—Mr. Hassall, whose experience as the editor of an excellent coöperative history of Europe entitles him to speak with some authority, places a very high value upon Stubbs's studies in a field which was not especially his own. "Though numerous publications bearing on the period of which these Lectures treat have appeared in England and abroad, it may well be doubted whether any so well-reasoned an account of the years from 1519 to 1648 has yet been written." Praise, and generous praise at that, they certainly deserve, for, although free from the trappings of erudition, they disclose wide reading and, what is equally essential, the results of deep reflection on questions like the Reformation and the rivalry between the chief Powers of Europe in an age when religion and politics were interwoven as they have never been since the Peace of Westphalia. For ourselves we have been chiefly interested in the account here given of Charles V., and we imagine that the majority of readers will consider it to be the most attractive part of the volume. It is significant to see that Stubbs, with his usual calmness of judgment, criticises unfavorably Motley's strictures about Charles's lack of chivalry, and anticipates in essential respects the weighty verdict of Mr. Armstrong. We subjoin his last words: "We part with him, then, with some little liking, and some considerable respect, and a great deal of pity; and we cannot spare him from very deep blame; we cannot shut our eyes to very great guilt. But we cannot doubt his greatness, his force and tenacity of mind, his great ability in war and government, his earnest faith in the religion he had been educated in; we cannot but think that he might have been a better man if he had not been so great a prince, with so much power for good and evil."

—Mr. Roberdeau Buchanan, who did the eclipse work of the American Ephemeris through more than a saros and a quarter, has published an octavo book of 247 pages and eleven plates (29 figures), explaining the computations in the utmost detail ('The

Mathematical Theory of Eclipses,' Philadelphia: Lippincott). Mr. Buchanan is a master in the craft of computation, in the grade that belongs to *Nautical Almanac* work, though not, presumably, in the more delicate operations of the geodetical computer. The beginner who desires to initiate himself into the computing craft cannot do better than to go through the computations of an eclipse under the guidance of Mr. Buchanan. That of a total solar eclipse so as to determine the limits of totality is by no means the simplest thing in the world, and some pretentious treatises contain very mistaken statements about these phenomena. In Mr. Buchanan's treatise all is made so extra plain that we meet with such remarks as this: "There is a principle in the theory of differences that I have never seen in any of the ordinary works on interpolation, and that is, the symbol Δ is distributive." This means that if the Joneses have both more boys and more girls than the Browns, then the excess of the Jones children over the Brown children is the sum of the excess of the boys and the excess of the girls. The paragraph devoted to the exposition of this original idea concludes: "This principle I have found of very great use in certain methods of computation for shortening the work." We need not say that the works on interpolation which do not mention this presuppose a familiarity with the simplest elements of finite differences. Mr. Buchanan refers his reader in all cases to Chauvenet for the analytical developments, so that the first three of the nine lines of the title of his book very accurately describe just what the book omits. We will only add that, were we to go into technical details, we should have sundry strictures to make. Nevertheless, the work is excellent on the whole.

—In spite of the rooted antagonism of Celtic and Anglo-Saxon ideals, it is in England that the Irish National Theatre Society has found its chief support. The theatre that will presently be its headquarters in Dublin is the gift of an English lady, Miss Horniman, who has undertaken to spend about \$10,000 on alterations and equipment and to take the responsibility of a ninety-nine-year lease at an outlay of about \$1,000 yearly. The theatre, which will seat only five hundred spectators, belongs to the Mechanics' Institute in Abbey Street. The city morgue, which adjoins the building and has lately been abandoned by the Corporation, will be taken over for dressing-rooms, the whole expense being met by Miss Horniman, who will make a free gift of the theatre to the Theatre Society. As the income of the Society is only \$250, the question of rents has always been the chief difficulty; the actors receive no payment, and are often recruited from the working classes, especially when the plays are in Irish. When Miss Horniman applied this month for a license or patent, an amusing discussion took place among the barristers who appeared for her and those who were present to protect the interests of the existing theatres in Dublin. Mr. Yeats was called to defend the aims of the Society, and was attacked by the opposition for producing plays with a political tendency such as his own "Cathleen ni Hoolihan." He retorted that he was simply an artist, and as such had no opin-

tions to advocate on the stage. The opposing counsel was obstinately Philistine, and refused to admit that the achievements of M. Antoine and the Théâtre Libre furnished a hopeful analogy for the Irish Theatre. London audiences, they said, had received with a "cry of horror" plays that had been produced by M. Antoine. Sir Horace Plunkett, who supported Miss Horniman, maintained that a patent should be granted on the ground that the Irish plays tended to keep the people in the country by giving them a fresh interest; any movement that would stop the leak at Queenstown would be welcomed by the Department of which he is President. His arguments were patriotic and practical, and told more than the artistic aloofness and claims for the romantic urged by Mr. Yeats and only half understood by his hearers. What really impressed the Court, however, was the fact that the Theatre could not in any case be made to pay, since there is to be no bar and no orchestra. Miss Horniman, as a non-resident, was not legally qualified to obtain the patent; Lady Gregory, the author of 'Poets and Dreamers,' met the difficulty by offering herself as the patentee. The opposing managers framed certain restrictions as to the character of the plays to be performed in the new theatre. They must be by Irish writers on Irish subjects, and when standard plays are given they must be not less than fifty years old. The patent was finally granted for six years, and the Irish National Theatre now has a home of its own in which to carry on its mission of popularizing the romantic drama.

MÜNSTERBERG'S AMERICANS.

Die Amerikaner. Von Hugo Münsterberg. Two volumes, pp. xii., 494, 336. Berlin: E. S. Mittler & Sohn; New York: Lemcke & Buechner. 1904.

Professor Münsterberg's book is intended for Germans, and was written with the avowed purpose of enlightening the German public and dissipating prejudices which are due to misconceptions and misinformation. The author relates that ten years ago, when he was a professor at the University of Freiburg and still under thirty years of age, he received a call to conduct the Psychological Laboratory at Harvard. He accepted the call with the intention of resuming his position at home after the expiration of his three years' leave of absence. He set out, he says, with all the prejudices of the average German, and all the special prejudices of the German university professor, who looks down with patronizing condescension on the scientific culture of the New World. But he found everything so different from what he had expected, and was so powerfully attracted, that he concluded to remain. His principal motive for departing from his original intention was a desire to take a share in the work of promoting a better understanding between Americans and Germans by making them better acquainted each with the real character of the other.

From these statements and from other expressions in the preface it appears that the author considered that in writing his book he was carrying out a mission—a self-imposed one—in assuming which he was undoubtedly animated by a high ideal. He has indeed produced an imposing work, filled

with information of all kinds, and abounding not only in statistical and historical facts and data, but also in philosophical reflections and shrewd comments which are the fruit of much study and personal observation. It is of necessity largely expository; hence considerable portions of it consist of information fairly familiar to educated Americans. Most of this is in the main accurate; whatever small errors have crept in are so few in proportion to the vast mass of material presented that they may well be passed over in silence. For the rest, the question presents itself, In what spirit and from what point of view does the author treat his subject, and how much value should properly attach to his conclusions and judgments? One naturally approaches with great expectations the production of a man of varied culture and recognized intellectual powers; one who, by his official position and long residence at our leading university, has enjoyed opportunities which seldom fall to the lot of a foreign observer of our institutions and national characteristics, and who is animated by a lively desire to see clearly and to report truthfully. The entire physiognomy of the book is such as might be expected. It is the methodical and systematic work of a German professor of philosophy, both in form and in substance. It is a sustained and elaborate thesis in support of certain metaphysical theories concerning the American people, their past development and their future destiny. As already intimated, the argument rests on a broad foundation of facts, but the impression made on the reader is that the facts are marshalled with a view to supporting preconceived theories, rather than that the conclusions flow inductively from the facts.

Comparisons naturally suggest themselves between the present work and that of Mr. Bryce. Broadly speaking, the two treatises illustrate respectively the German and the English method and cast of mind. Professor Münsterberg's metaphysical bent and his innate inclination to generalize and theorize meet us at the very threshold. In the opening words of his introduction, which, like the rest of the work, is written in a style bristling with epigram and *esprit*, he says that the mistake made by Germans in judging America is in comparing the United States with some single European state which has a homogeneous culture in all its parts, whereas the proper comparison would be with all Europe, since there is a wider difference between the ripe culture of the Eastern States and the primitiveness of some portions of the West than between the civilization of Germany and that of Bulgaria or Servia. Nevertheless, the American man everywhere, from the Atlantic to the Pacific, is one and the same. The discrepancies of culture are wider than those on German soil, but the discrepancies between men are smaller. The inhabitants of the various German States have different aims, ideals, and motives, while the eighty millions under the American flag are, in their aspirations and their essential being, a single race, all animated by the same desires, impelled by the same forces, and impeded by the same defects; their variations of culture being merely variegated garments; all of which, however, cover always one and the same creature, the American.

It remains to be seen how the author elab-

orates his theory—how he works out in detail what he considers the particular qualities which set the American man apart from other men. These particular qualities are four in number, and to each of them is devoted one of the four parts into which the book is divided. The first part, treating of politics, illustrates the working of the spirit of self-government; part second deals with the industrial development, which emanates from the spirit of self-help; part third describes the intellectual life, and dwells on the spirit of self-perfection; part fourth is given over to society and the working of the spirit of self-assertion. It may be noted, in passing, that our author is rather fond of these fanciful and epigrammatic conceptions and distinctions. Thus, to show that Germany and America are peculiarly fitted to work together for the best interests of civilization, he takes up in turn the relations in which other European countries stand to the United States, and sums up the case by saying that America finds its social antipodes in England's aristocracy, its intellectual antipodes in the literature of France, and its political antipodes in Russian autocracy, while the German nation is the only one with which it is possible to establish a real sympathy in the social, the intellectual, and the political realms; Germany becoming Americanized and democratic, while America becomes Europeanized and aristocratic. This is a typical instance of the way in which the author's love of theory and of pointed expression leads him into making statements which, to speak moderately, are questionable, and are, moreover, without much support in his text.

Having constructed an imaginary American and endowed him with distinctive qualities which mark him as a being set apart from the rest of mankind, Professor Münsterberg proceeds to show how these qualities work out their legitimate results in all the relations of the national life. As already stated, the first part of the work, embracing more than a third of it, treats of the political life of the nation, and is intended to illustrate the American spirit of self-government, the desire of each man to determine for himself how and by whom he shall be governed. Together with much historical matter and much discussion of political problems of the most recent years, there is a description of the working of the political parties, in which the author sometimes seems to ignore well-known facts, which, however, he recognizes in other parts of his book. Thus, he says that the voter not only elects Presidents, governors, mayors, legislators, and all sorts of officials, but even determines who shall be candidates for the various offices. Probably having in mind German methods, he says that there are no central committees or authorities who decide these things beforehand without bothering themselves about the wishes of the masses. One naturally reads this passage with surprise, as it seems hardly credible that a man of Professor Münsterberg's intelligence could have lived here for ten years without ever hearing of men like Platt, Quay, or Gorman. On a later page, however, he says that at a Presidential election millions vote for each candidate without being conscious that there was a time, long before the meeting of the national conventions, when it was in the power of eight or ten leaders

to determine who should be the party candidate. Contradictions of this kind are not infrequent, and may be assumed to arise from the necessity which the author imposes upon himself of defending a thesis instead of merely setting forth facts. Having started out with the theory that the American man is bound to settle for himself who is to be his President or governor or mayor, and will allow nobody to dictate to him or to lead him, he could not possibly avow to his German audience that in too many cases the voter has absolutely nothing to say about the selection of candidates, and is restricted to the poor privilege of choosing between two men, neither of whom would be the choice of any considerable portion of the people if the people had any choice.

He has another fanciful theory which leads him into making strange statements. He believes that the two parties which divide the country between them have had a logical continuity and consistency from the start, and represent respectively the centripetal and the centrifugal tendencies of the people; namely, that the Democratic party stands for the State-rights doctrines of Jefferson, while the Republican party maintains the Federalist or centralizing principles of Hamilton. With his usual conscientious method, he works this out in detail, and displays his dialectic skill in an attempt to prove that the respective attitudes of the two parties on the questions of slavery, of the tariff, of the free coinage of silver, etc., can be logically deduced from their position on the question of centralized government. Any one who knows how narrowly the Republican party escaped the fate of becoming the advocate of free silver can look on such paradoxes as the mere vagaries of a philosopher. Perhaps the climax of this peculiar view is reached when the author gravely enunciates as his conclusion that, like all centralists, the Republicans are at bottom Opportunists and Realists in politics, while the Democrats, like all centrifugal politicians, are Idealists and Dreamers. Nobody will deny the novelty of this discovery.

The second part of the book, occupied with the industrial development as an emanation from the spirit of self-help, or the spirit which leads a man to shape his own destiny for himself, again presents the elaboration of a thesis. Its aim is to demonstrate the theory that Americans regard work not as a means to an end, but as an end in itself. "An American works, not because he has to earn his living, or because he desires to accumulate riches, but because he loves work for its own sake. The charm that wealth has for him is not in its possession so much as in its acquisition. He hunts the dollar in about the same spirit in which the English go fox-hunting. He loves the profit, but he also loves the game. A European merchant or manufacturer looks forward to the time when he can retire from business and live on his income; an American money-getter no more thinks of retiring than does a scientific man or an artist who is still in the full vigor of his powers. For these and similar reasons the author thinks that it is radically wrong to accuse Americans of materialism. They are really idealists, for idealism does not depend on the acts which a man performs, but on the spirit in which he performs

them. If a man performs a deed because he believes in its value, it is of no consequence whether his idealism is demonstrated in corporeal or in spiritual matters, whether he writes poems or paints pictures, or builds bridges or lays railroad tracks.

No less peculiar and original than this thesis are some of the arguments by which it is sought to enforce it. One of them is that Americans do not value wealth when it is not the fruit of a man's own exertions. As an instance of this the author says that Americans are not gamblers or speculators, whatever may be the appearance or the general opinion on that subject. He ingeniously explains that men who speculate in stocks do it, not in a gambling spirit, but as a matter of business; in other words, they do not trust to luck when they buy stocks or when they sell them short, but they study the market, ask their friends, act on "tips," and are guided by the judgment thus formed. Even betting and poker-playing can be viewed in this manner. Another illustration of the disinterested character of American enterprise is found in the habit which Americans have of building railroads in unsettled portions of the country, whereas in Europe railroads are built only where the population has already settled.

The third part, describing the intellectual life, and dwelling on the American spirit of self-perfection, is mainly inspired by the author's conviction that America is destined to surprise the European nations by achievements in the field of science, literature, and art which will rival her successes in the industrial field.

"In the middle of the seventeenth century," he says, "all of the civilized nations had produced great philosophers: France had Descartes and Malebranche; Italy, Bruno and Campanella; England, Bacon and Hobbes; the Netherlands, Spinoza and Grotius; but Germany alone had nothing to offer, so that the scoffers took it for granted that the Germans had no talent for philosophy. The time may be nearer than the scoffers imagine when America will have her Leibnitz and Lessing, her Kant, Fichte and Hegel."

Of great interest is the chapter on the universities, in which Professor Münsterberg has a subject on which he is pre-eminently qualified to speak, being equipped with what might be called esoteric knowledge, and the comparisons he makes between American and German universities being based on an unusual familiarity with the inner workings of institutions of learning on both sides of the ocean. He considers that, in comparing the intellectual development of our country with that of Germany, it is necessary to remember that the periods occupied by the various stages of progress are much longer in the latter case than in the former:

"The primitive times of the Teutons, from the days of Tacitus to the Christianization under Charlemagne about the year 800, would thus correspond to the century and a half from the discovery of America to the Puritanization of 1630; the next period, covering seven hundred years, and ending with the emancipation of Germany from Rome, covers in America another century and a half, ending with the emancipation of the colonies from England; the Reformation was followed by a period of three hundred years, embracing the Thirty Years' War, the literary revival of the eighteenth century, the downfall of Napoleon, the war of German liberation; and here again the Americans reproduce a similar movement in ninety years—years of war in the begin-

ning of the nineteenth century, a literary revival in the middle, followed by the war of secession, and finally by peace."

Without following our author further, it may suffice to say that he finally comes to the point that, in matters of the higher education and original research, there has been a greater movement in America during the past ten years than in Germany during the past fifty.

In apparent contradiction of this train of thought, he says, later on, that, in judging American productions in the highest regions, Germans are inclined to adopt a false standard: having in mind the greatest names in philosophy, they point to Kant and Schopenhauer, Fichte and Hegel, and ask, "What have the Americans to set against these names?" But as America's scientific and philosophic productiveness is a matter of the past twenty or thirty years, the proper comparison is with what Germany has done during the same period, and we shall find that great men are as rare there as they are here. Professor Münsterberg cites a great number of Americans eminent for their services to science and philosophy, and selects for especial commendation a few of his Harvard colleagues. Royce's work, "The World and the Individual," he says, "is perhaps the most important systematic conception of the world which our time has produced." William James he pronounces, next to Wundt, the most important psychologist of the present day.

There are other comparisons with Germany. The Germans are sparing of time and labor in the schools, but wasteful of both at the universities; the Americans waste much time in the schools, but make the fullest use of it at the universities. As regards the rapidity of service in public libraries, our author quotes the saying of Brooks Adams that in the Paris National Library it takes an hour to get a book, in the British Museum half an hour, and in the Congressional Library at Washington five minutes; and then adds that in Germany it usually takes half a day.

In his judgments on literature he follows the lead of most foreign critics in assigning a high place to Poe and Whitman. The latter he puts before all others, and finds in him some resemblance to Nietzsche. Speaking of the arts, he says that, in the art of painting, as in many other realms, the United States has gone through three stages—from provincialism to cosmopolitanism, and then to nationalism, and is just now in the transition from the second stage to the third. In praising the work of Sargent and of Whistler, he says that they are, in the main, portrait painters, while the true American artistic expression is found in landscape; furthermore, Sargent and Whistler speak the language of Europe, but America is beginning to speak a language of her own.

The fourth part of the work, given over to social phenomena, in which is exhibited the working of the spirit of self-assertion, develops two of the author's favorite theories: the supremacy of the American woman, and the growth of American aristocracy. His views about women are familiar to American readers of his "American Traits." He considers the American woman to be the consummate flower of American civilization. Nevertheless, he recognizes that her position of supremacy

entails certain drawbacks to the common weal. While the half-educated American man will refrain from passing judgment on matters outside of his sphere, every quarter-educated American woman is ready to give her opinion on every subject under the sun. In no other civilized country do quackery, patent medicines, and Christian Science bear such sway; the phalanx of quarter-educated women fights for them.

In his views on American social relations, on equality, on aristocratic tendencies, the author indulges his tastes for fanciful and paradoxical assumptions, which are, however, permissible in dealing with a subject which every man looks at from the point of view of his personal experience and impressions, and on which one opinion is as good as another. He has many acute observations. Speaking of the prejudice against the negro race, he says that it is not racial, but social. The prejudice is really stronger in the North than in the South. The Southern people are accustomed to see negroes about them, and have no objection to them except that they will not admit their social equality. No Southerner would enter the dining-room of a hotel if he saw a negress sitting at one of the tables; but if she has a little white child with her whose nurse she appears to be, she is at once recognized as a household servant, and her presence ceases to be objectionable.

There are many other topics which Professor Münsterberg views in an original way that may prove suggestive to his American readers. He is of the opinion that the Monroe Doctrine has outlived its usefulness, and will ultimately be abandoned, provided no European Power is rash enough to attack it. His reasons have much force. Briefly summed up, they are, first, that the supposed contrast between the free institutions of the American continent and the absolutism of Europe is a figment. The governments of the western European nations are far superior to those of the so-called South American republics. Secondly, as a defence against European aggression, the Monroe Doctrine has no value. The United States has become so powerful that it is absurd to suppose that the acquisition by a European Power of a small tract of land in South America can be attended with peril. We have a boundary line extending for three thousand miles from ocean to ocean with our traditional enemy, and it has never involved us in hostilities. What danger can arise if Italy or Holland should plant a colony in some South American State? Thirdly, it would be greatly to our interest if English or German colonists introduced civilization into some of the South American States and created a new outlet for our commerce.

Judging the book as a whole, the salient feature of it—one which meets the reader on every page—is its unflinching optimism. Everything is seen to be for the best in the best of all possible republics. Even institutions which some Americans regard as accidental excrescences and which others consider to be evils to be abolished, are praised as necessary outgrowths of the American character. The author finds it quite proper and necessary that national politics should be concerned with the government of cities, that a member of Congress should be a resident of the district he represents, that members of the Cabinet should have no

seat in Congress, etc. Political corruption and civil-service abuses he views with an indulgent eye, as transient evils which have been much exaggerated. The sensational newspapers have in him a defender who finds their offensive features palliated by commendable qualities which have escaped the scrutiny of less charitable observers. Wherever other men see dark and threatening clouds, he sees only the silver lining. Whether the question be of the aggressiveness of the Trusts or of the pretensions of the labor unions, he is equally hopeful of a pacific solution. In short, whatever is, is right; if it were not right, how could it possibly exist in so favored a land? As they say in the "Mikado," "You are right, and we are right, and everything is as right as right can be."

Of course, it is easy to see that this optimism, in so far as it is not the result of the atmosphere in which the author lives, arises in a measure from his desire to combat the prejudices of his German readers and to present his subject in a favorable light. Although undoubtedly desirous of giving an impartial account, he is nevertheless unconsciously an advocate. It is the business of an advocate to present his own side and to let the opposing advocate present the other. As an exposition of everything that can be said in favor of the American people and as a storehouse of valuable information, Professor Münsterberg's work is assuredly a remarkable and valuable performance—a monument of industry and of good will.

HOGARTH'S ARABIA.

The Penetration of Arabia: A Record of the Development of Western Knowledge concerning the Arabian Peninsula. By David George Hogarth, M.A., F.R.G.S., F.S.A. New York: Frederick A. Stokes Co. 1904. Pp. xiv, 360; 54 illustrations and maps.

There goes a peculiar ease of mind to the reading of the story of the exploration of Arabia, for, until now, it has been of exploration simply. Since Alexander in his last days planned a coastal march round the peninsula to Egypt—a march which almost certainly would have baffled even his genius—and Ælius Gallus carried out his gigantic failure, European conquest or exploitation has had nothing to do with the home of the Arab race. Egypt has made raids into the interior; Turkey holds garrisons round the coast; England has imposed the *pax Britannica* on the Persian Gulf, and drawn the teeth of the pirates of Bahrein, Oman, and Hadramaut; but here there need be no shrinking from such a record of disgrace as forms almost universally the closing chapters of the contact between the civilization of Europe and a stationary race. Solitary travellers have come and gone through Arabia's wastes, over her mountains, in her cities; merchants have traded with her coasts; scholars have given their days and nights to unravelling her history, her geography, her life in large and little; from her has gone forth the most abiding change and influence since the Christian era, but Arabia remains untouched, unaffected, nourishing her peoples in the old ways, a multitudinous but tremendous unity known through fourteen centuries and spread over a million and a quarter square miles.

Nor is it likely that the future holds anything different. The Arab race is neither "nigger" nor "native," in the intolerant Anglo-Saxon phrases, though much negro blood has poured into it. It will never be subject, and it will follow its own paths and retain its own identity as unchangingly as have the Jews. Nor is there anything in the land itself to allure. The tales of gold in Midian and of gems and spices in Yemen have failed. The wealth of Arabia was never its own; it acted as agent for the farther and the gorgeous East, holding that not in fee, but passing on alien merchandise. And so the case will always stand. The Turkish Government will continue its railway down the pilgrim road to Mecca. England will run another from Egypt across the desert to the head of the Persian Gulf. These will be but through-routes and strategic lines. Arabia geographic they will do little more than touch, and Arabia national may use them, but certainly will not be used by them. They will not affect land or people more than the Roman or Byzantine *via strata* of the pre-Muslim time, which gave a word to Arabic and a theological concept to Islam, but touched in no whit the Arab people.

In truth, then, the exploration of Arabia is almost as purely of simple scientific interest as the struggle to reach the poles. Only at one point, it may fairly be said, does anything else enter. Arabia is not only the home of the Arab race; it holds also, but easily accessible and near the coast, the two sacred cities of Islam. Over these there may well be struggles in the future, and it is a large chance that England will have to add them to her burdens; but the district where they lie, al-Hijaz, is historically easy of separation from the rest of the country, and a European garrison there might mean for the Arabs little more than does that at Aden. For Islam, it is true, the effect would be portentous, but Arabia and Islam are two absolutely separate things. It is easily conceivable that an event which would send a quiver through all the rest of the Muslim world would hardly move at all the tribesmen of the desert.

But, however such visions may shape themselves into reality, the reading of Mr. Hogarth's book bears with it no memories or fears of the wrongs that fall on inferior races. Deadly, often, has it been for the explorer, but the people are as they were found. It is a record of study and research in geography and sociology—nothing more. To a geographer, therefore, it has happily fallen. The only pity is that Mr. Hogarth is no Arabist, and all untranslated sources were closed to him. Those, too, so far translated are of very minor value—mere traditional sketches, without firsthand knowledge—and one, even, of these seems to have escaped him: the German translation by Wüstenfeld of the introduction by al-Bakri to his geographical lexicon. The haunted well of Barahout, also, and the legended city of Irem have evidently for him no special meaning. Nor does he notice the curious narrative which Sprenger translates in his 'Leben Mohammeds,' describing an actual eruption in one of the *harrat*, and using the exact words, suggestive for the Biblical story, that it was "as a pillar of cloud by day and of fire by night." D. H. Müller's 'Bürgen und Schlösser Südarabiens' seems also to have

been unknown to him; it would have opened much of the treasure still hidden in the Arabic text of al-Hamdani. The records of European travellers, on the other hand, are treated most exhaustively. The only serious omission is of Wallin's complete journal and letters (Helsingfors, 1864-1866, 4 vols.); their Swedish garb, it is true, renders them inaccessible to most. Robertson Smith, too, got as far, at least, as Taif, and described his travels in a series of letters to the Edinburgh *Scotsman*; these, however, were not given permanent form. On the puzzling figure of Ali Bey some further light might have been found in Budgett Meakin's books on Morocco. It is a slight detail that S. M. Zwemer was not a missionary to the Jews (p. 195), but one of the pioneer missionaries to the Arabs themselves.

To come to Mr. Hogarth's general treatment, it is simple and satisfactory. The broad geographical features of the land are made abundantly plain with a certain amount of iteration, being developed gradually as the explorers penetrate and cross them. There is no attempt at a systematic portrayal of the whole; no geography of Arabia is here written. The nearest approach to that is where the regions still unexplored are limited and their problems defined. For the rest, we follow the travellers and see with their eyes, appreciating, it is true, more exactly than they could the day's work of each. This process is divided—not very necessarily—into two parts; first, the pioneers; second, from the middle of last century, their successors. After some brief account of Arabia as known to the ancients, rightly appreciative of the knowledge of Ptolemy, we have Varthema and the Portuguese, ending with Arabia in the map of D'Anville (1755). This is the end of the period of tradition, fragmentary chance reports, and darkness. A very few years (1762) saw Niebuhr in Yemen, and the modern exploration begun. Then the names come fast—Ali Bey, Seetzen, Pinati—if he be worthy of mention in this company—and, finally, under the guard of Muhammad Ali's campaign against the Wahhabites, Burckhardt, equal in fame with Niebuhr.

With the Egyptian march into Nejd the country was now fairly opened, and a multitude of little narratives of exploration, of purpose and without, followed, but the next name of moment is that of Wallin, the Finn, who crossed and recrossed the centre, and rendered possible the map and description of Ritter, which are still authoritative, though compiled more than fifty years ago. So fruitful was Wallin's work, and so little advance have his followers made. Yet the roll of their names is long; this barren land has had the strangest and most potent attraction for all types of wanderers. Burton, Palgrave, Sadlier, Euting, Huber, Halévy, Glaser, the Blunts, Nolde, Guarmani, Doughty, Von Wrede, Von Maltzan, Snouck Hurgronje, Stern, Harris, Hirsch, Pelly—such are some of the adventurers, and to each his place is very fairly assigned in these pages. The value of Burton's 'Pilgrimage' is perhaps somewhat minimized. His route was not untravelled, but the picture he has given is unmatched for clearness and life. The treatment of the enigmatic Palgrave is excellent. The slowness of his real results is shown. He was distinctly imaginative, but he was not the

"d—d liar" of Robertson Smith, nor did he deserve "das denkbar vernichtendste Urtheil" of Socin. The relations of Euting and Huber and their results for the Teima stone are made plain; perhaps Euting's geniality is hardly fairly brought out. Halévy and Glaser have the full justice done to them which they have not always received. The social insight of the Blunts, too, amateurish as their work often is, is honored, and the value of their geographical observations developed. Nolde's interest lay in horses and camels and in the politics of Nejd, and to geography he paid little attention. Guarmani's phenomenal journeys have justice here probably for the first time in English; the rarity of his Italian record has obscured his merit. Doughty's fame was fixed from the publication of his great work—truly the greatest on nomad Arabia; but the appreciation here is exact and ample. The credibility of Von Wrede is rightly upheld, though no one has again seen his quicksands; but no account is taken of the more than doubt on the story of Keane. Pelly's narration has had too little attention, and the description here of its businesslike definiteness is good. As an army officer and consul turned geographer, he compares favorably, in his daring ride, with Sadlier, first crosser of the continent as the latter was. Finally, Snouck Hurgronje did little for geography, but much for the normal town life in Mecca.

In all this the geographical interest is naturally supreme. The plan of the book and Mr. Hogarth's lack of Arabic learning have debarred him from any considerable wanderings. When he does go afield, little slips are apt to occur. The "ihram" is not one garment, but two (p. 92). Niebuhr's statement (p. 72) of the attitude of the Wahhabites to the doctrine of the nature of the Qur'an is most unhappy; the Danish engineer was a prince among explorers, but no theologian. Burckhardt's success in the rôle of a learned Muslim was not as great as Mr. Hogarth suggests. Lane has told us how his Cairo friends would never give him even the title of "shaykh"; his habit of whistling—always unlucky as the speech of the Jinn—effectually prevented that. Soon after his death, too, there grew up a legend that the shaykhs of the Azhar had discovered that he was a secret "Rafidite"—a very extreme form of Shi'ite heretic. They examined him and found the names of the first three Khalifas written in contempt on the soles of his feet. That, of course, was enough, and he was put to death. Plainly, his standing in orthodox Cairo could not have been remarkable.

In illustration, an abundance of reproductions (photographic evidently and often very dim) of maps, plans, portraits, and views is given. The maps are all of high interest, ranging from Sprenger's reconstruction of that of Ptolemy down, and the portraits are often very striking. One of Burton in his younger days shows how he was called "Father of moustachios." Wallin, from a picture in the possession of the University of Helsingfors, where he died as professor of Arabic, is a figure of character and impressiveness; Niebuhr, shrewd, open-eyed, pig-tailed, needs only a china-bowled pipe and a flowered dressing-gown to be a *Grossvater* in a Jean Paul romance; Lady Anne Blunt, from Molony's painting, is painfully labelled. Two new maps are added, one geographical and the other of land-surface

features. Both are somewhat small and necessarily incomplete. It would be a grateful labor if Mr. Hogarth would collaborate with an Arabist and give us a thorough map of Arabia. The latest Stieler map to which he refers is by no means a success, and the adventure is yet open. Only, in any such attempt, the unexplored parts should be carefully indicated. As it is, we have painfully to trace explorers' routes and make a guess at their range of information on either side. The map of Arabia must still be defaced by many white blotches, though probably now no great secrets are hidden behind them. And there is hardly any map on which the problems of geology and geography so closely join. The nakedness of the land lies bare throughout; there is little of decent coverture to its anatomy. To explain, even to recognize and describe, its "nafud," its "harrat," is "fall" pits, its wadis and water system generally, subterranean and visible, is a task for the student of geology, not for the mere triangulator and contour-sketcher. So even Wallin did not recognize the lava of a "harra," though he remarked innocently enough that it had "very much the appearance of cinders." For this task Mr. Hogarth is evidently amply fitted, and we trust he will permit it to be urged upon him. He needs only a collaborator who is familiar with Hamdani, Bakri, Yaqt, and the rest—a somewhat hard requirement, it must be admitted.

Forms of English Poetry. By Charles F. Johnson. American Book Co. 1904.

The title of this book is deceptive, for the word "form" as a technical term in treatises on poetry usually refers to the rhythmical or metrical form considered as sound merely, the author himself so using the word in the heading of his eighth chapter, "The French Forms." Yet in six of the eight divisions under which poems are here classified, the classification is on the basis, not of form, but of subject or treatment. Mr. Johnson recognizes this inconsistency on page 355, when he says of romance and epic, "It is only in a broad sense that they can be called poetic forms, since they are not at all distinguished by verbal embodiment."

The book is addressed not to those seeking to learn how to write verse, nor to those wishing to give instruction in prosody, but to young minds supposed to know little or nothing about poetry, yet to be capable of being interested in it. The first chapter, on rhythmic units, gives a concise treatment rather better than most such abstracts, containing few misleading statements and much pithy information. It should help any inquiring mind and is an attractive presentation of its subject. The historical method employed in the eight chapters succeeding is not so flagrantly overdone as in several recent books on poetics, yet it can but repel students. It involves many repetitions—a few necessary, some advisable, and others wearisome—and it leads to altogether too much emphasis on the earlier and too little on the more recent poets. The book would be bettered by two omissions. The analysis of "In Memoriam" (pp. 212-222) is likely to repel the tyro it might inform, and can hardly inform the poetry-lover it will not repel. Still more ill-judg-

ed are the trivial and un instructive citations of Russian folk-tales and the wry-necked comments on them which fill pages 338-348 inclusive. These songs have little relation to any sort of epic, none to epic in English, and they obscure rather than illumine the treatment of that kind of poetic composition.

On page 12 we read: "Judging from the analogy of music, it seems highly probable that the time-beat of the accented syllables in a line of English poetry is exact. That is, that if in a normal reading, we strike twenty accents in a minute, each would be one-twentieth of a minute apart—all would be equally spaced." This statement we regard as misleading. Greatly overworked is the analogy of music as an explainer of the phenomena of English verse. Still to be settled by some yet uninvented process of the physiological or psychological laboratory, the facts elude demonstration. The demonstration is quite likely to be that the time intervals of English verse accents are only approximately equal.

The chapter on the French forms is fairly good, yet neither in text nor in examples does it give any clue to the origin of the triolet in dramatic dialogue, nor to the proper significance of its repetitions. In what is said of the sestina there is much false doctrine. Kipling's "Sestina of the Tramp Royal" is in the strict Provencal form as invented and exemplified by Arnaut Daniel, for the Provencal sestina was unrhymed. The example quoted on pages 320, 321, as following the Provencal standard with strictness, is after the later and more artificial French rhymed model.

Like almost all writers on English versification, Mr. Johnson is completely bewildered when in the presence of a pæonic or semipæonic lilt. He quotes on pages 31, 32 some verse in such a rhythm, and shows by his comments that he fails to detect the verities of its movement. In many histories of music, mention is made of a mediæval religious musician who gravely appended to his exposition of musical notes an asseveration of his abiding faith that the breve was the shortest possible note, and an execration of self-styled composers who held that such an unthinkable short note as a semibreve could exist. In spite of him and hosts of other such reactionaries, the world's musicians have gone on conceiving, composing, and performing music with notes continually shorter and with novel kinds of time devised to suit the shortening notes; and the end is not yet. As music developed along the line of shorter notes and more to the bar (its other lines of development do not enter into the analogy), so the variety of the rhythms of English poetry is steadily increasing by the composition of verse in metres whose characteristics are shorter absolute and relative time to the syllable, more syllables to the foot, more unaccented or lightly accented syllables in proportion to those fully accented. Besides rhythms with one or two unaccented syllables to each foot accent, a great deal of verse has three light syllables to each heavy syllable in a considerable proportion of its feet. These rhythms are analogous to the pæonic metres of the Greeks and Romans, and there are not wanting signs that lilt of four or even five light syllables to each ictus may be composed in English. How much longer, we wonder,

will the writers on versification misunderstand or ignore what the writers of verse are very generally doing?

The large amount of space allotted to quotations gave an opportunity for illuminating exposition of many poets' peculiarities, and for cogent illustration of the author's contentions. But poor use has been made of it. Except in the chapter on the ode, few quotations, even among the sonnets, might not have been easily bettered by a more sympathetic knowledge of the poet's work, and a more judicious selection. This is especially true of Swinburne; and it would have been exceedingly easy to cull finer examples of most of the French forms. Also, in most instances, instead of those here printed, better sonnets, both as specimen sonnets and as exemplifications of their authors' sonnet-writing, could often have been hit upon by superior taste in gathering them. The samples of ballads given are enough to scare most neophytes permanently away from the reading of our fine old ballads. Particularly out of taste is the printing of most of Buchanan's "Judas Iscariot."

In spite of criticism made and capable of being further made, this book is admirable in spirit and generally commendable in execution. The preface is worth reading, especially the first paragraph on page 4. The observations on factors in the quality of verse-form are often well thought out and very well expressed, showing Mr. Johnson's comprehension of niceties of verse-structure and his neatness of expression. Even better than what he says of verse, his remarks on poetic worth and what makes for it, display his command of a telling phrase for a real idea. We trust that Mr. Johnson will try again and produce a larger and more comprehensive treatise. Much may be hoped of a man who can construct a definition of a poet as good as that adumbrated in the following quotation from page 26:

"The poet is endowed with the power of instinctively selecting those [syllables] which are melodious, and this power is an intimate quality of his nature. This skill is inborn and rare; there lies deep in the man a sympathy with melodious sound combinations, and his words assume them readily. To other men who have not the power of creating them, they give almost as much pleasure as they do to him. If this power is united with intellectual ability and keen perception of the emotional suggestiveness of things, we have a poet of the higher order."

Many more formal and ambitious attempts at defining what is a poet are less successful than this, and we know of few as sane and none more satisfactory.

Greater America. By Archibald R. Colquhoun. With maps. Harper & Brothers. 1904.

The "main idea of this book," the author tells us in his preface, is "Greater America [*i. e.*, the expanded United States] as a world Power," "the American peoples," and "the American ideal in the cosmogony of the world"—a rather large subject even if we suppose that Mr. Colquhoun uses the term cosmogony in some restricted sense not familiar to us. The survey embraces, of course, the Philippine question, the Cuban question, that of Canada, of "Pan-Americanism," and of the Monroe Doctrine; and the attempt is made to present "American evolution as a whole." If

any one is entitled to deal with this matter, it is Mr. Colquhoun, for, "nearly twenty years ago, the writer of these lines predicted the shifting of the centre of gravity of world affairs from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean." Any one who knows twenty years in advance what is going to happen to the world's centre of gravity is entitled to a respectful hearing in any branch of evolution as to which he chooses to lift up his voice, and we have accordingly examined this volume with some care to find out if possible what the future has in store for us.

We have been unsuccessful. Whether the fault be in us or in our author, we can discover little save tame commonplace description and criticism, mixed with a good deal of friendly warning; but no revelation of the future at all. Where is the centre of gravity of world affairs to be twenty years hence? Are we to become a great colonizing power? How large a navy do we need? Must we have Canada, and how soon? Does the Monroe Doctrine mean whatever we like to have it mean, or not? When we gaze into the future, these are some of the questions which confront us, and which we hoped Mr. Colquhoun would solve; but he does nothing of the kind.

What he has to say is worth reading, but will not prove of much comfort for expansionists. His main thesis is that what we ought to do with the Philippines is what Great Britain has done with India—establish justice, make good roads, govern through a trained civil service, make life and property secure and the country prosperous; meantime allowing the natives "every privilege consonant with their own welfare." Now why should not we adopt a similar policy in the Philippines? Partly because we feel bound to try to give them "liberty," *i. e.*, the power of governing themselves, and believe that self-government and democratic institutions once attained, all the other blessings will follow. This, our author implies, is all very well in theory, but will not work in practice. We should keep self-government for ourselves, as Englishmen do, and give the Filipinos the government suited to them. Not having done this, "we are bound to be somewhat disappointed with results so far as we can trace them." Mr. Colquhoun's whole chapter on the Philippines is a sermon on this text. Instead of providing the country with a sound political machine and a trained governing class and good courts, we have been trying to "assimilate" the Filipinos, *i. e.*, make them into imitation Americans. The reason we do this, of course, is that it is the only way we have ever tried before, or know anything about. We have "assimilated" Texas and California; why not the Philippines? Because Texas and California have been peopled by ourselves, and the Philippines never can be. But we cannot escape from our own ideal. It haunts us wherever we go, and compels us in the Philippines to pretend to behave as if we were in Massachusetts.

The consequence is that the Philippine venture satisfies nobody. It fails to satisfy us, because we are conscious that we are masquerading as imperialists; it fails to satisfy the Filipinos, because they do not understand what we are trying to do with them; it fails to satisfy genuine imperialists like Mr. Colquhoun, for reasons

which he states quite plainly. Only Anti-Imperialists can derive much comfort from his book, which may be taken, perhaps, as an indication of the tendency of the tide of "imperial thought" to subside into rational channels. Of course there is the usual hopeful suggestion that we are a great people, and shall be sure to find a way out of every difficulty; but we knew this long before imperialism was heard of.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bacheller, Irving. Vergilius. Harper & Bros. \$1.35.
Conant, Charles A. Wall Street and the Country. G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$1.25 net.
Durr's Colloquial Egyptian-Arabic Grammar. Translated by W. H. Lyall. London and New York: Henry Frowde. 4s. net.
Dyer, Louis. Machiavelli and the Modern State. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Gardner, Edmund G. Dukes and Poets of Ferrara. E. P. Dutton & Co. \$4 net.
Jastrow, Morris, Jr. Die Religion Babylonians und Assyriens. Part 6. Giessen: J. Ricker. Marks 1.50.

Lexis, W. History and Organization of Public Education in the German Empire. Translated from the German by G. J. Tansom. Berlin: A. Asher & Co.
Molee, Elias. Tutonish. (An international language). Published by the author at Tacoma, Wash. 40 cents.
Naillen, A. van der. Balthazer the Magnus. R. F. Fennel & Co. \$1.50.
Radcliffe, Francis R. Y. and Miles, J. O. Cases Illustrating the Principles of the Law of Torts. Oxford: The Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde.
Starr, Frederick. The Ainu Group at the St. Louis Exposition. Chicago: Open Court Publishing Co.

Seager's INTRODUCTION TO ECONOMICS

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CHINESE MADE EASY

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WITH AN INTRODUCTION BY

HERBERT A. GILES, M.D., LL.D. (ABERD.), Professor of Chinese in the University of Cambridge, England, and late H.B.M. Consul at Ningpo, China. Author of "Chinese English Dictionary," "China and the Chinese," etc.

PROFESSOR GILES, in his "CHINA AND THE CHINESE" (Macmillan, 1902), says: "I have often been asked if Chinese is, or is not, a difficult language to learn. To this question it is quite impossible to give a categorical answer, for the simple reason that Chinese consists of two languages, one colloquial and the other written, which for all practical purposes are about as distinct as they could well be. Colloquial Chinese is a comparatively easy matter. It is, in fact, more easily acquired in the early stages than colloquial French or German. A student will begin to speak from the very first, for the simple reason that there is no other way. There are no Declensions or Conjugations to be learned, and consequently no Paradigms or Irregular Verbs. In a day or two the student should be able to say a few simple things, after three months he should be able to deal with his ordinary requirements, and after six months he should be able to chatter away more or less accurately on a variety of interesting subjects. A great deal depends on the method by which he is taught."

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